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The Nation.

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The Week.

Two of the most conspicuous leaders of civil-service reform addressed the public on Thursday on the interesting subject of William McKinley. One of these was Gov. Roosevelt, the other Charles J. Bonaparte. Neither of them, however, touched the subject of civil-service reform. Both of them had in view the war policy of the President. Gov. Roosevelt considers that the Philippine war makes it a national duty to reëlect President McKinley. Mr. Bonaparte thinks that the President has bartered his conscience, on a question involving the blood of his fellow-countrymen, for the sake of a party victory at the polls or possibly to secure his own reëlection to office. A more formidable indictment than this, he thinks, could hardly await any man at the bar of history. Mr. Roosevelt's views are diametrically opposed to this. He holds that there is danger of our becoming a nation of hucksters unless we have frequent wars, and that the real criminals in our history are those who neglect favorable opportunities for fighting. Between such notable champions of civil-service reform how are we to choose? To which of them should other civil-service reformers look for safe leadership? Evidently they should look less to leaders and more to their own principles and their own platform. We have had a war with Spain and it is ended. Nobody can recall the past or bring the dead to life. We have a war with the Filipinos which is a heavy weight on the consciences of many, and, we would fain believe, a sorrow to all—even to those who believe in war for war's sake. Even they must have some sympathy for a people who believe that they are fighting for liberty. In the presence of the dead past and in the midst of present perplexities, Mr. McKinley has dealt the heaviest blow at the principles of civil-service reform, and given that cause the worst set-back that it has received since the passage of the Pendleton bill, nearly twenty years ago. This surrender to the spoilsmen ought to solve all doubts among the friends of the merit system as to Mr. McKinley's moral make-up. To our mind it goes far to justify Mr. Bonaparte's analysis and indictment of his war policy. *Falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus.*

In the list of Republican newspaper critics of the McKinley Administration and its Philippine policy are three important journals, the Portland *Oregonian*, the San Francisco *Chronicle*, and the Boston *Record*. Their editors, especially those on the Pacific Coast, from which section most of the troops who are fighting in the Philippines have been drawn, are clearly of the opinion that Imperialism will be an issue in the next Presidential campaign, and that the President is not on the popular side of it. The utterances of the Portland and San Francisco journals, all of them very strong Republican organs, are in no sense timid or equivocal. They undoubtedly reflect the steadily rising tide of popular dissatisfaction in their section with the shilly-shallying course of the Administration and with the situation in the Philippines. It is no anti-Imperialist, but the chief Republican organ in San Francisco that says we have not yet tried the policy of conciliation with the Filipinos, as we should have done first of all, but have tried the policy of subjugation and have failed, and that the question now is: "Do the American people want to resolve their war for humanity into a bloody conquest of subjugation?"

The uncensored dispatch from Manila which the *Herald* has received from its correspondent by way of Hong Kong, contains information as to the real condition of affairs in the Philippines which coincides exactly with the news that has reached this country in other ways. The two views which the *Herald's* correspondent delineates, the official rosy view, and the non-official gloomy view, are familiar to us here. Nobody takes stock any longer in the first, though it continues to be put forward in the Manila dispatches which the War Department gives to the public, and in interviews with cabinet officers. The second view has come to be accepted generally as the true one, because it has been sustained by every trustworthy authority who has spoken for several weeks. It found its most convincing expression in the declaration of Dr. McQueston of Gen. Otis's staff, who announced on his arrival at San Francisco that a force of 100,000 to 150,000 men would be necessary to subdue and hold the Philippines. It is idle for cabinet ministers at Washington to attempt to offset information of this kind, direct from the seat of war, and from the lips of a man in the best possible position to know the facts, with some general observations by Charles Emory Smith or Attorney-General Griggs. The situation in the Philippines is serious, not rosy.

An odd suggestion comes from Washington, apropos of the failure to reach an agreement with Great Britain respecting the Alaskan boundary, that we might "make things even" by declaring the Clayton-Bulwer treaty abrogated. The two things are separated from each other by nearly the whole length of the North American continent, and they have nothing in common except that both subjects are in the field of the diplomatic discussion now pending between the two governments. It constitutes an obvious objection to our taking the position that the treaty is abrogated, that we are now negotiating on the theory that it is not abrogated. It would be ungentlemanly to say to-day that a thing does not exist which we were asking the other party yesterday to help us get rid of. Moreover, if we should say that we consider the treaty already abrogated, very likely England would say, as she did once before, that she considers it in full force. That would not commit her to do anything, but she would hold herself clothed at all times with the rights that the original treaty guaranteed. So no progress would be made, but, on the other hand, the present friendliness of the two countries would be seriously chilled. It is worth remembering also that the Senate recently, in an amendment to the river and harbor bill, would have authorized the President to enter into negotiations with Great Britain looking to the abrogation of the treaty. This failed in the House, but its adoption by the Senate was tantamount to an expression of opinion by that body that the treaty has not been abrogated, but is still in force.

Secretary Alger's candidacy for the United States Senate has become ridiculous within a week after he announced that he had entered the contest. His own weakness standing alone has only been aggravated by his alliance with Pingree. The Governor of Michigan has been very successful in winning office for himself, and has proved himself very strong with the people. But it has been shown already that he cannot turn over his strength to anybody else, and his attempt to beat Senator Burrows for reelection with a Pingree man last winter was a humiliating failure. What he could not do for another man who was respectable enough, he certainly cannot accomplish for a politician so thoroughly discredited as the Secretary of War, while the Governor's opposition to McKinley's war policy would of itself drive off support from his ally. Alger has maintained all along that he need not retire from the cabinet because he was a candidate for the Senate, and it already looks as though he would not be "enough of a candidate to hurt."

It is intimated at Washington that the Treasury Department is preparing to

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defend the removal of Mr. Shurtleff from the office of General Appraiser by producing evidence of inconsistencies in his appraisements, or showing in other ways that he was not an efficient officer. The trouble with this kind of defence is that it is not pertinent. The law requires that Mr. Shurtleff should not have been removed except for cause and on charges, with an opportunity to be heard in his own defence. He was removed without charges, and his request for reasons was not complied with. If this was an illegal proceeding, as he and his counsel claim it was, it cannot be justified by the production of charges now. Tammany officials have tried to justify like conduct on their part in this way, and have failed in every instance in which the matter has been brought into court. Scannell tried it with reference to an employee of the Fire Department, and the ultimate result was an order by the court to reinstate the removed person with back pay for the time that he had been out of office.

The courts have once more given Tammany a disagreeable lesson as to the meaning of the civil-service law. In January of last year, William Dalton, the Commissioner of Water Supply, removed Major Tate, a war veteran, who held the position of Water Register for Brooklyn, without giving any cause for the removal or giving him a chance to be heard. Major Tate brought the case before the courts, and, after many rebuffs on technical grounds, he won it last week in a decision by the Appellate Division of Brooklyn, ordering his reinstatement. Mr. Dalton contended, in defence of his course, that the position was "confidential" and as such did not come within the "veteran" clauses of the law. Justice Cullen, in delivering the opinion of the court, takes occasion to define what "confidential" means, thereby showing that his interpretation of the word is quite different from the prevailing Tammany one. He says that no employee or subordinate can be said to hold strictly confidential relations with his appointing power unless the latter is held pecuniarily responsible for his misconduct or defalcation. As this was not the fact in the present instance, the place was not confidential, and the removal of Tate was illegal. He must be restored, his salary of $4,000, with back pay, must be resumed, and the good Tammany Democrat who was put into his place must be put out—or kept on the pay-roll of the city in some other capacity.

The feelings of our Mayor when he takes up his pen to give his official approval to the new civil-service regulations for the city will probably never find public expression. No matter what he thinks of the regulations, he has no choice except to approve them. If he refuses approval, the whole matter will be thrown into the hands of the State Civil-Service Commissioners, who will have power to make whatever regulations they desire and to force them upon the city. It is said of the regulations which the city commissioners have agreed upon after conference with the State Commission and some despised civil-service reformers, that the number of unclassified places will be reduced one-half, and that the difficulties of getting anybody into the service without passing a competitive examination will be so magnified that few genuine Tammany men will ever be able to get anything in the way of a "soft snap," or any position more desirable than that of a day-laborer. The law is so clear, and has been interpreted with such cold-blooded rigor by the courts, that all hope of getting around it has been abandoned. Reform has never before sat with such deadly weight upon the Tammany clerical talent of this city as it does to-day, and the knowledge that he must give his approval to the hated law which confirms it in its seat, must tax the Mayor's serene temper severely.

It is to be hoped that the grand jury will take notice of the violation of the corrupt-practices act in the Ninth Assembly District, where the Croker-Sheehan fight is going on. The act makes it an indictable offence for any person holding an office, or seeking a nomination, or claiming to have authority or influence, to threaten any other person with removal from office or public employment with a view of influencing that person's political action, or to promise him an office or other valuable consideration for the like purpose. Notwithstanding this prohibition and the penalty of fine and imprisonment annexed thereto, the crime is of daily occurrence, probably in both parties. Just now it is especially flagrant in the Tammany crowd, where the men are removed from public employment or threatened with removal in large numbers in order to force them to abandon Sheehan as a political leader and adhere to Croker. We do not look to Sheehan for elevation of the tone of public life; nevertheless, a great deal of good would result from a vigorous enforcement of the law which forbids intimidation at the primary elections. The primaries are the nesting-places of free government. No reform can do much good which does not begin there. A few years ago a wholesome example was made of some ballot-box stuffers, who were actually indicted, convicted, and sent to the penitentiary. That species of crime came to an end for the present at least. It would be a still greater contribution to the cause of good government to make an example of the corrupters of the primaries in the Ninth District or in any other district where violators of the law can be found.

It is generally believed that there is to be a consolidation of the Metropolitan, the Manhattan, and the Third Avenue Street Railways, and perhaps, also, the Brooklyn Rapid-Transit Co. If the reports to this effect are true, the cause of the movement must be found in the use of electric propulsion for street traffic. If the old system of locomotion were retained, wherein the motive power of each car or train is separate and detached from all the rest, there would be no economy in consolidation of the several companies. But in the new conditions which have come about, great economies can undoubtedly be affected by attaching all the rolling stock to a few large power-houses. In this the public have an interest as well as the companies themselves. It is for the public interest that the movement of passengers in the streets shall be accomplished without the use of coal, smoke, and flying cinders and puffing locomotives. It is their interest also that it shall be done at the least possible expenditure of fuel. A few years ago such a consolidation would have been looked upon with alarm, as tending to monopoly, oppression, and perhaps increased fares or inferior accommodation. There is nothing to be apprehended now, so far as can be discerned. If the consolidated company becomes oppressive, the new franchise-tax law can be invoked to relieve it of any excessive gains.

There is no longer any doubt about the negotiation for a lease of the Boston and Albany Railroad to the New York Central. The lease is subject to ratification by the stockholders of the former company and approval of the Legislature of Massachusetts. The terms of the lease seem to be sufficiently attractive to insure the ratification by the Boston and Albany party, but the Legislature may offer some opposition, especially since the State itself has the right, reserved under the charter, to acquire the property by reimbursing the shareholders. A commonwealth is apt to be a hard bargainer. There are so many people and such varied interests to be consulted, and so many politicians to be placated, that a good deal of work may yet be required to secure the final execution of the lease. In any event, the New York Central can hardly fail to secure the place of advantage in any future competition for control of the property, and this may be its main object now. New York has no objections to offer to the lease, so far as we can see. The New York Central Railroad extends itself to Boston—that is all. It has no reason to favor one city at the expense of the other.

An interesting discussion has been

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started in the South by the views about the condition of agriculture in that section which were recently given to the Industrial Commission in Washington by the Vice-President of the Georgia State Agricultural Society. According to this witness, things are already worse than they ever were before, and the situation is steadily becoming still more unfavorable. Indeed, his evidence was one mass of undiluted pessimism. But the leading newspapers of his own State and of other parts of the South earnestly protest that his picture of the situation is altogether wrong. He lives in Augusta, and the *Chronicle* of that city says that, while the farmers are still carrying a heavy burden and there is room for betterment in both agricultural and industrial conditions, the "burden is growing lighter and lighter every day" and "conditions are bettering." The Atlanta *Constitution* is equally emphatic in the view that, although for the past few years agricultural conditions in the South have been deplorable, "the causes for this condition are equally well understood, and there is in sight a relief from them, and the possibility of a future condition in which the farmers of the South will stand far ahead of those in the East or in the West." The Greenville (S. C.) *News*, speaking for an adjoining State, is even more positive. It declares that "so far as South Carolina is concerned, the people are not in a depressed condition; on the contrary, agricultural conditions are better in this State than at any time since the war."

The truth about the matter appears to be that the conditions of cotton-raising have changed so radically that farmers who stick to the old ways are "getting left," while those who realize the necessity of a change and show the enterprise which is required are better off than ever. When cotton brought fancy prices, the planter could make it his only crop, buy everything else that he used, and lay up money. But when the price of the staple fell to four or five cents a pound, and he continued paying high prices for meat, grain, and other articles, brought long distances over railroads from the North, he was sure to "run behindhand." There has been a great difference in the rapidity with which the farmers of different States have learned the lesson. The Greenville *News* testifies as to South Carolina that "diversified farming is redeeming this State from financial depression and illiteracy; it is improving the land, putting money in the farmers' pockets, and making everything different from the conditions described by Mr. Barrett as existing in his section of Georgia." In Georgia itself the progressive agriculturists are already profiting in the same way, and the last report of the Commissioner of Agriculture shows that the area sown to wheat is 15 per cent. larger this year than last, and the acreage in corn nearly 25 per cent. larger. Wherever in other parts of the South this diversification of agriculture has occurred, the condition of the farmer has improved in the same way.

One cause of lynching is the doubt which is so often felt by the people as to whether a criminal will suffer the just penalty if the mob shall let the law take its course. This doubt is largely based upon the frequency with which men who are undoubtedly guilty of grave offences escape all punishment through a resort to technicalities by their lawyers, and through the elevation of form over substance in the interpretation of law by the courts. The Supreme Court of Tennessee has gained an unenviable prominence for thus sacrificing the interests of justice. In one case which was recently carried up to it, a colored merchant had been convicted of receiving stolen property, and the jury which tried him felt no doubt about his guilt. Among the men summoned from whom this jury was selected was a cotton-picker, who lived in a tent, one of the family of nomads who go from place to place. The law requires that a man shall be "a householder or a freeholder" to be eligible for jury service, and when this tent-dweller appeared, the judge declared him incompetent, and filled the box with twelve men who were plainly eligible, who tried the case and convicted the accused. But the criminal had a shrewd lawyer, who decided to take the chances of getting a reversal of judgment on appeal, and the highest court set aside a just verdict because it held that living for a while in a tent in a certain county made a man "a householder," and that the whole trial must go for nothing because a man who was eligible to be a juror was not taken.

It had been urged, it seems, by some nervous and flighty people—probably by the very people who wished the Government, a year ago, to buy wheat and lock it up in storehouses—that the British Exchequer or the Bank of England, or somebody else, ought to obtain more gold and hoard it for the benefit of British trade. This idea was apparently suggested by the fact that the gold holdings at the Bank of England are at present less by nearly £7,000,000 than they were a year ago, and smaller than at this period in any year since the heavy increase of European bank reserves began in 1892. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach replied to this suggestion by merely affirming that the Bank of England's business in the gold market was confined to increasing its reserve when this was needed to meet its banking requirements, and that neither the Government nor the Bank had any excuse for wasting capital in an unprofitable hoard of specie. The truth is, that the amount of gold in the Bank of England's vaults is merely an automatic reflection of the conditions of international trade and international credits. Whether larger or smaller in amount than usual, its sum total represents the amount of gold received from abroad in settlement, which its holders have chosen to convert into Bank of England notes. The question of increasing what the Bank describes as its reserve involves a different principle, because it is purely a matter of prudent banking. Generally, it has been thought that a reserve of notes and coin in the banking (not in the issue) department equivalent to something like 40 per cent. of the sum of liabilities was a proper working minimum. It is clear that this percentage could be enlarged either by reducing liabilities or increasing reserves. Lately, the reserve percentage has run slightly below this traditional figure, and the Bank, not deeming it wise in existing trade conditions to contract its loans, has recently undertaken, by means of an offer of interest during transit to the gold-importers, to attract an additional sum of specie into its own reserve. But the difference between a move of this sort and an arbitrary attempt to increase a national stock of idle specie is considerable.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach in his speech discussed the proposition that the Government ought to take some steps to secure a sufficient gold reserve to protect the business interests of Great Britain. He rightly rejected the scheme as unnecessary, and quite outside the proper duties of Government. It was a banking question solely. If it was a burden to accumulate and hold a large stock of gold, it was one for the banking fraternity to assume. Since the Government has no demand notes outstanding, and is not charged with any duties or responsibilities in reference to the currency, it would be sheer folly for it to meddle with that business, even in the way of offering advice. "If an increase of the gold reserve is necessary," said Sir Michael, "it ought to be undertaken by the combined action of the Bank of England and the great joint-stock and private banks." Here the Chancellor occupies safer ground than Mr. Goschen did a few years ago, when he held the office that Sir Michael now occupies. Mr. Goschen, in two speeches of considerable length, maintained that both the Bank of England and the joint-stock and private banks ought to be compelled to keep a larger stock of gold than they customarily held, and he indicated about what percentage it ought to bear to their total liabilities. The tone of his speech, and the position he then held as the chief financial officer of the Government, led the public to expect that if the banks did not increase their gold reserves, he would bring a bill before Parliament to compel them to do so. But he did not

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JAPAN'S COLONIAL EXPERIENCE.

One of the shrewdest foreign diplomatists in this country, speaking the other day of the situation in the Far East, mentioned as a noteworthy incident Japan's failure to subdue Formosa. She holds the seaports, while the interior of the island is still about as untamed as ever. Courtesy doubtless forbade his suggesting any parallels which might be offensive to the people among whom he is making his home; but one, at least, must have crossed his mind.

Formosa passed into the hands of Japan after the war with China in 1895, in much the same way that the Philippine archipelago has passed into the hands of the United States. From a strategic point of view, Japan had some need for Formosa, because the smouldering fires of Chinese revenge are liable to burst forth into flame one day, and then a naval base within a few hours' sail of the Chinese coast will be of value. If we had demanded Ceuta instead of the Philippines from Spain, we should have acted upon the same logical motive as Japan in demanding Formosa from China. Having acquired title by the treaty of Shimonoseki, Japan proposed to take possession of her new domain. She soon found that she was an owner in name alone. A considerable part of the island was known to the outside world only through travellers' tales, having never been scientifically explored. It was reported to be rich in material resources, including among its agricultural products tea, sugar, rice, camphor, and castor-oil, and among its mineral deposits coal, petroleum, iron, and gold. The Mikado had no Becker to make a superficial survey, and to furnish estimates of the extent of this potential wealth, but all the stories brought back by persons who had ventured into the interior agreed in representing the country as one which could be made to pays a fine tribute to the imperial treasury.

But there were the inhabitants. Of all the human mixtures outside the Philippines, probably no country could show one more complex than Formosa's. In one small district eight different languages were spoken. There was an almost countless number of tribes, each having its own chief and council, its own laws and social customs, and its own peculiar arts of savagery. Some of the tribes were headhunters, some were cannibals. One region was inhabited by a race of pigmies, while at the other extreme of the physical scale was a clan of giants cruel and cunning to the last degree, and expert in the use of spear and arrow. For some 200 years the Chinese had tried to reduce the wild tribes to subjection, but in vain. The struggle had been carried on very much like the Spanish effort to conquer the Filipinos. A victory here and there would be greeted as an assurance of success; but at the first sign of relaxation on the part of the invaders there would be a sudden raid from some fastness still held by the natives, and its story would be told a few hours later in a long trail of blood and ruin. The Formosans felt that, having possessed the land before any strangers came among them, they had a right to live on it and enjoy its fruits undisturbed. They may have been savage, but they knew what liberty meant; and though the supreme authority in most of the tribes was despotic, it was a despotism of their own making, and not one forced upon them against their will by aliens.

Of course, China's deed of cession could convey no more than she herself controlled, and that was little. Where her army had gained a foothold in the southern end of the island, her people—mostly the daring Cantonese—had poured in as settlers and mixed with those natives who were willing to acknowledge her sovereignty. Out of this union had grown a new element, proud of their Chinese origin and much more advanced in civilization than the pure aborigines, but quite as tenacious of their rights. Their immediate ruler, when the Japanese arrived, was the renowned Liu Yuen Fou, the provincial potentate whose Black Flags had taught the French a lesson eleven years before. In a way, he was the Aguinaldo of the Formosan episode. Admiral Kabayama, whom the Mikado had named as Governor, issued a proclamation, in the form of a letter to Liu, briefly rehearsing the story of the war between Japan and China and the treaty ceding Formosa to the Japanese, and adding:

"As I hear you occupy Tainan, with the intention of resisting our occupation of that portion of the island, I wish to point out to you how fruitless will be your attempts to oppose us. . . . You will be unable to obtain reinforcements, and, shut out from outside help as you are, success will be almost impossible. It is easy for you to understand this.

"Your name is widely known, and you have the reputation of being a brave man. You are well acquainted with international law, but you go contrary to its precepts. . . . In this you conduct yourself in the manner of an ignorant person. If you will . . . disband your army and give peace to the country, I will beg my Emperor to send you back to the mainland with honors worthy of your rank, and the soldiers in your command will be pardoned and given passage to their homes. . . .

"As I have long been acquainted with your name, I offer you these suggestions and advice. Whether you choose to accept them or not, remains with you."

Liu's answer was a contemptuous refusal to come in and be good. Then began a campaign of subjugation, the results of which, up to the present time, we have summarized above. A Japanese Jingo resents to-day the insinuation that his government has not brought peace and good order to Formosa, with not less spirit, though perhaps with better manners, than an American Jingo resents a like suggestion regarding the Philippines. Yet Japan, after four years of constructive occupancy, still has to keep a well-equipped army in Formosa, and the wild tribes of the interior lead their old lives unchecked. Does the reader need to have drawn for him in detail the parallel between Japan's experience with her ceded province and that upon which our nation is entering in a neighboring archipelago? Is there not a familiar ring in almost every sentence of this condensed history? Might not the description of Formosa, with its stores of natural wealth, its variegated population, its unexplored areas, and the resistance it has offered to a transfer from one putative owner to another, have been written as truly of the Philippines? Might not the Otis proclamation have been copied, in spirit at last, from Admiral Kabayama's letter of benevolent admonition?

It may be argued, in defence of Japan's situation in Formosa after such a lapse of time, that she is a small nation, comparatively. Let us see. All Formosa, if set down on the single island of Luzon, would leave half of it uncovered; whereas Japan is larger in area than New England, New York, and Pennsylvania combined, and her population is more than half that of the United States. Moreover, no people understand dealing with Orientals so well as Orientals themselves, and Japan is easily first of the Oriental Powers. If she cannot show a clean record of success in Formosa, no other nation could. She is wise enough to recognize her limitations, however loath to confess them in public. It is an open secret that she could have had the Philippines last year if she would have accepted them. She did not want them; she does not want them now. She has had enough of the sort of trouble which must go with their ownership; and from the store of her costly experience she could teach a thing or two to those countrymen of ours who still think we drew a prize in our latest lottery of war.

THE COMPETITIVE PRINCIPLE.

Nothing exposes more clearly the bad logic of the President's recent changes in the civil-service rules than the contempt flung by his apologists at the competitive feature of the tests applied for admission to certain grades of Government employ. Secretary Gage, for example, is quoted as saying: "There is the mint service. Why should we subject to competition the women who want to weigh and file the blanks which are to be stamped into standard dollars? All that one of those women has to do is to sit before a little scale and weigh bits of metal. If a piece is too light, it goes into one box; if too heavy, she files off enough to bring it to the right weight and throws it into another. It is 'weigh, file—file, weigh,' day in and day out. Why not appoint these women from a registration list? Fine scholars are not needed for such work. What is needed is character, and physical en-

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durance enough to keep at this monotonous task month after month without breaking down. Exclude favoritism, of course; but don't require such women to compete in an examination."

This is a fair sample of the reasoning of all the members of the Administration who deign to discuss the "backward step." Let us analyze it. Mr. Gage will surely not pretend that the mint at Philadelphia can give employment to all the poor women in that city, of good character and fair powers of endurance? Then how choose between them? By some system of registration, he tells us. In other words, all the women who are too decent to steal, and who are warranted not to succumb to fatigue or bad air, are to enter their names on a list, from which the superintendent is to take them in order. This, it is assumed, would get rid of the obnoxious element of competition. But in fact it would not; it would merely change the form of the competition. Naturally, a large number of applicants would seek to stand at the top of the list, and would make some sort of a contest for the choice places. Would they all assemble at the registration office and crowd and jostle each other, thus making it a contest of muscle and avoirdupois? Or would they decorously form a queue before the office door, and hire messenger-boys to hold their places over night, like ticket-buyers for a new play?

Even the spoils and patronage abuses have their competitive feature. Twelve candidates besiege a public man who has an office in his gift; one endeavors to show that his appointment would please the largest number of voters; another, that he has friends who could contribute handsomely to the next campaign fund; a third, that his family is socially powerful, and could further the ambitions of his benefactor's wife. The only thing that none of the dozen will think worth proving, is that he is better fitted than the other eleven to do the work; but the competitive feature, at which every spoilsman rebels, is there just the same. We venture to say that Mr. Gage would not employ a servant for his household except on a competitive basis, if there were more than one applicant for the place. He would not question the candidates about algebra or astronomy; no more would a civil-service board. But if three men wished to drive his carriage, and two brought good testimonials from their last employers, while the third did not, the third would be excluded at the start. Of the two remaining, if one could read and write and cipher a little and the other could not, the Secretary would choose the one who knew the stable and something besides. That would be human nature. The mistake most persons make in dealing with the public service lies in forgetting that it is only private service vastly expanded. The same principles which appeal to common sense in the one case may safely be applied in the other.

The most radical reformer who ever lived would not claim that a scholastic test will show whether a woman can file the edges of a silver disk. But if, as Secretary Gage assumes, almost any woman can do that, what possible harm can there be in assuring the Government of a group of employees who can do that and something more? Is a woman any less able to weigh bits of metal all day long because she is able also to describe her duties in writing? When she drops these bits into boxes, is she any the worse for knowing that ten in one box and five in another make a total of fifteen? Do not abolish the competitive test in her case, but enlarge its scope. Set twenty candidates to filing and weighing at the same time, if you will, and see who does her work fastest with accuracy. Infuse as much of the practical into your tests as you can—the more the better; only bear in mind that the Government ought to have the best help its money will buy, instead of being compelled to pick it up haphazard and train it afterwards at the public expense.

A favorite refuge with public men opposed to the competitive system is the remark: "I believe in examining candidates, but I want to do my examining *myself*. I question a clerk before I set him to work. You don't mean, surely, to say that I would conduct an examination unfairly?" It is pitiful to be obliged, at this late day, to review the kindergarten course in civil-service reform for the benefit of men in high public office. Suffice it to answer that charges of wrong-doing and suspicions of evil intent, are not now under discussion. It is not necessary to go into the question of personal sincerity, and inquire whether this or that appointing officer will provide an honest "pass" examination or deal fairly with a registration roll. The point to settle in each case is whether a competitive test is practicable. If it is, it should be applied; if not, resort may be had to the next best method. Why take the second quality of anything when you can just as well have the first?

THE SECURITY OF RAILROAD MORTGAGES.

The recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States concerning the rights of unsecured creditors is certainly disquieting. The case was that of the Louisville Trust Company against the Louisville, New Albany and Chicago Railway Company, and others, and the decision practically overthrew the reorganization of that railroad. The plaintiff represented some unsecured creditors of the road, and alleged a kind of conspiracy between the holders of its bonds and its stockholders, by which the road was to be sold, and to be bought by a company in which these parties were to be interested. So far as appears, this reorganization did not differ materially from many others that have taken place within recent years. The stockholders were allowed something by the bondholders on account of the sacrifice which they made, but the bondholders, of course, retained their priority of lien.

The court has upset these proceedings, not because fraud was actually committed on the unsecured creditors, but on the bare ground that no agreement between the bondholders and the stockholders of a railroad, contemplating the foreclosure of a mortgage, is equitable unless all claims against the road are provided for. "No such proceedings can be rightfully carried to consummation which recognize and preserve any interest in the stockholders without also recognizing and preserving the interests, not merely of the mortgagee, but of every creditor of the corporation. In other words, if the bondholder wishes to foreclose and exclude inferior lienholders or general unsecured creditors and stockholders, he may do so; but a foreclosure which attempts to preserve any interest or right of the mortgageor in the property after the sale must necessarily secure and preserve the prior rights of general creditors thereof." The court conceded that the bondholder might voluntarily, after he had acquired title by foreclosure, make a gift of some interest in the property to the former stockholder; but it declared intolerable any agreement between these parties that did not recognize the claims of all creditors.

Unsecured creditors, under the system of receiverships which our courts have developed, have gradually attained a tolerably safe position, but they are certainly likely to fare even better hereafter. In the case of one railroad, at least, it is a fact that the unsecured creditors captured the railroad and "froze out" the first-mortgage bondholders altogether. The court sanctioned the issue of receiver's certificates to such an extent as to exceed the value of the property. There have been so many notorious cases of this kind that railroad lawyers say that, when a road goes into the hands of a receiver, it may as well be understood that every one will be paid before the bondholders. If there is any surplus they may get it, but their priority of lien has become a legal fiction. The wages of employees must be paid; furnishers of material must be paid; every one, in short, who can make delay or trouble, has to be taken care of. As Justice Brewer says, the public interest requires that the road be operated, and hence the running expenses become the first lien by means of receiver's certificates. He now holds that equity, if not public interest, requires that these general creditors shall

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participate in the ordinary schemes of reorganization, if they wish to do so.

It is of course conceivable that the owner of a piece of property may conspire with the holder of a mortgage thereon, and consent to a sale in foreclosure on the understanding that he is to participate in the proceeds. Such a collusive proceeding, however, would be a fraud on the holder of a second mortgage only if he were prevented from bidding at the sale. The law supposes that if a man lends money on a second mortgage, he will be prepared to protect himself by buying in the property when it is sold. Justice Brewer very properly says that it is different in the case of a railroad, which the bondholders are seldom in position to buy. Indeed, to acquire such a property is generally the last thing that they wish to do. Hence they are to a great extent helpless. If they can unite and raise a contribution, they may be able to purchase the property, or at least to secure some recognition of their claims. Otherwise they are at the mercy of the men who get up the scheme of reorganization, and who may, as in the case at hand, give general creditors no opportunity to participate in it.

It is quite evident from the tone of Justice Brewer's opinion that he suspected fraud in this reorganization, and intended to have it exposed, if it existed. Unfortunately, the receivership system, as enlarged by the courts, gives every opportunity for such frauds. Had the courts not prevented the holders of first mortgages from exercising the rights granted them by deed, many iniquitous reorganizations would never have taken place. As it is, whenever these creditors propose to act on their rights, the managers of the railroad run to court and get themselves appointed receivers. Then they can deal with bondholders and every one else at arm's length. They can, in fact, bring all creditors to terms; and so long as this is the case, there is consistency in the present decision. It is a decision really making new law concerning reorganizations, and until the abuses of the receivership system are abated, such judicial control of reorganizations is indispensable. Although in apparent disparagement of the rights of prior lienors, this decision will perhaps not affect them unfavorably, for, as a matter of fact, the courts had already undermined, if not abolished, priority.

THE MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY.

What shall be done with our double-chambered Municipal Assembly? A writer of a communication in the *Evening Post* of Friday is of the opinion that one branch of it, the Council, should be abolished, but that the other branch, the Board of Aldermen, should be retained with certain changes in its powers and functions. This is tantamount to a proposition that we return to the condition of things which prevailed in the old city of New York before consolidation. This correspondent is undoubtedly familiar with the estate to which our Board of Aldermen had been brought at that time, after many years of experience. We had been compelled to take from it one power after another, till virtually none of value was left, simply because the men who were chosen to the Board could not be trusted with any power which could be turned to their pecuniary or political profit. Nothing remained except the granting of licenses and permits for petty street privileges of one kind or another.

We had, in short, demonstrated by the practical experience of half a century that municipal legislatures were useless and generally pernicious bodies. Seth Low, writing of them in Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' as early as 1888, expressed the view held by all unprejudiced students of municipal government when he said that "whether these bodies have been composed of one house or two, the moment a city has become large they have ceased to give satisfactory results," and that "as a rule they have so far abused their powers that almost everywhere the scope of their authority has been greatly restricted." Writing again upon the same subject for the *Century Magazine* in 1891, Mr. Low was even more emphatic, saying: "All efforts to secure a Common Council composed of men who by character and experience are competent for the duties which ought to be committed to them, thus far have been singularly unsuccessful." Nobody whose opinion was worth a copper disputed these conclusions when, in the winter of 1896-'97, our new Charter Commission was engaged in constructing a form of government for the enlarged city; and the proposal of that Commission to revive what was universally admitted to have been a demonstrated failure, and to revive it in the most extreme form in which it had ever existed—that is, a double-chambered legislature, with a very large membership—created great astonishment.

It would be cruel to reproduce at this time the arguments which the chief advocates of the revival, Gen. Tracy, ex-Judge Dillon, Mr. De Witt, and the majority of the Commission, advanced in favor of their extraordinary course. Mr. Low and Mayor Strong opposed it, but finally agreed to give their approval to the charter with this inexcusable blunder in it. In the discussion which went on at the time, it was shown that all genuine expert authority was against it. The objections, based upon the results of experience, were not directed against a double-chambered legislature, but against any municipal legislature whatever, as an obsolete institution. Mr. Hewitt, heartily approving Mr. Low's utterances, agreed with him in the view that "city affairs should be administered precisely as a corporation is"—that is, with a President and board of directors; the Mayor as President, and the heads of departments as his advisers and assistants. As Mr. Hewitt said then, the "great mistake we make lies in supposing that municipal administration is a political question or presents political problems to deal with. It is a pure question of business, and should be treated as such."

We had been for half a century working towards this business basis, and had concentrated all really important powers in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. This was the basis upon which our charter-makers should have constructed their new system, and they were so advised by Mr. Hewitt, Mr. Grace, the legal talent and experience of the city, speaking through a formal protest of the Bar Association, and by the press. It was suggested to them that instead of returning to the old and vicious system of a legislature elected by districts, they should provide for a kind of local governing body, with the Mayor, Comptroller, and certain heads of departments, or the old Board of Estimate and Apportionment, as a basis, and associate with them a certain number of men elected by the people, each representing a large constituency; the Borough Presidents, it was suggested, might be made members of such a body, or a certain number of members might be apportioned to each borough, to be elected by the voters of those divisions. In this way, it was hoped that a body could be got together which would be far more truly a representative one than our Municipal Assembly is, and which would bring to the conduct of the city business far more character and intelligence. But no heed was paid to advice of this kind. Our charter-makers deliberately chose the system which had been proved to be the worst ever known, and it is working precisely as it always had—worked up to that time.

There are no municipal powers which cannot be trusted more safely to a small body, of the kind outlined above, than to a Board of Aldermen based upon any form of representation, district or other. There is absolutely nothing to hope for from such a body. We have proved that by bitter experience, and the sooner we recognize the point as settled, the better for us. The power to grant franchises is best regulated by statute, with public sale to the highest bidder. Nobody in his senses would think of restoring any power of that kind to the Aldermen again. All other powers that they possess could be exercised more safely and wisely by a small governing body, of the kind suggested, or by the heads of the departments to whom they would most naturally fall. We cannot see how the reasons for abolishing one chamber of the Assembly do not apply absolutely to

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both chambers, or to any local legislature whatever based upon the present method of selection.

PROBLEMS OF OUR COLLEGES.

The steady growth of our educational institutions is the feature of the commencement season which most strongly impresses one who glances over the mass of reports from all parts of the country. The size of the graduating class increases, the endowment fund swells, the curriculum becomes more varied, the range of opportunities widens. All these are hopeful signs. But there is one thing which is still more encouraging. It is the fact that our college presidents are not satisfied with the situation; that they confess the existence of grave problems which press for solution, and that they are trying to solve them.

By an interesting coincidence there have just appeared, almost simultaneously, two presidents' reports which are notable for their discussion of such problems—one from the veteran head of Yale University, who last week retired from the great institution from which he graduated fifty years ago; the other from one of the younger generation of educators, who presides over one of the smaller colleges in New England. Writing independently in Brunswick and in New Haven, and summarizing observations made under very different conditions, it is an impressive fact that President Dwight of Yale and President Hyde of Bowdoin find some of the same defects in the methods which have developed in both colleges, and agree, broadly speaking, as to the nature of the changes which are demanded.

The distinguishing feature of the typical American college in its earlier days was the personal influence of the instructor upon the student. The professor knew the young men who came into his class-room as the teacher in a small school knows his pupils. He became familiar with their peculiarities of mind and character; he understood their special needs; he exerted, in many cases, an exceedingly strong personal influence over dozens of new students each year. Speaking of the period of 1850 in New Haven, then a town of but moderate size, Dr. Dwight says that it was the almost universal rule that the instructors met the entire company of students, and that not infrequently, during the course. With the great increase in the number of students, with the scattering of instructors' residences over a city of 100,000 people, and with the development of the elective system, attended as it is by the separation of students and teachers in their work, "there is no such universal acquaintance between the two bodies possible as was characteristic of the former period."

Even in the far smaller college community of Brunswick the same tendencies exist. "The growth of our colleges in numbers," says Dr. Hyde, "brings great temptation to resort to mechanical methods of dealing with the students in the mass, and to neglect the individual factor." Discussing the development of individuality, the President of the Maine institution says:

> "When a college has taught the regular classes at the hours required in the schedule, it has done only half its work. Sons of well-to-do New England parents, who have never been obliged to work at anything, who have begun to go into society, who find college life crowded with competing athletic and fraternal interests, need much more than the regular routine of recitations if they are to acquire any vital interest in scholarly pursuits. The attitude of the individual student is a much more important factor than the contents of text-book or lecture."

Something must be done to prevent the modern college from becoming, as Dr. Hyde puts it, "unwieldy and intellectually impotent; a respectable loafing-place for a throng of young fellows who are pleasantly passing away their time until serious professional training or actual business life shall rouse them to responsibility." Both Presidents have definite remedies to suggest for the admitted evil. Dr. Dwight declares that "the call of the present and the coming time upon our professors and teachers is an impressive and earnest call to enter into as close relations as possible with the individual students who are under their personal instruction"; and he does not hesitate to say that "no professor or instructor fulfils his duty to his pupils who sees them only in the lecture-room." Summing up the conclusions of his long observations, and putting them in practical form, he lays down the principle that every professor and other instructor should have certain hours in every week, if not a certain hour of every day, in which students can meet him on or near the university grounds, for conference on their studies and on other subjects of common or personal interest connected with their daily work or with the wants and aspirations of their intellectual life.

President Hyde's idea is that the only way to guard against the threatening evils is to "appeal strenuously and attractively to the individual student; give him work that he must do himself, and for which he must be individually responsible; offer him interests in which he can freely and enjoyably engage." Bowdoin College endeavors to meet these responsibilities in more than one way. A plan of individual instruction, supplementary to the regular class work in languages, was instituted two or three years ago, and is working excellently. During the opening term last fall the freshman class was divided into groups of six men, each of which groups, besides attending the ordinary recitations, spent with the instructor weekly a half hour in Latin and the same time in Greek. The students were prompt in attendance, and have shown and expressed their interest in the work. The scheme of individual instruction in this way is pronounced an assured success.

Another development of individual work at Brunswick is the formation, by members of the faculty, of clubs, composed of members of their classes, for the discussion, in a friendly and informal way, of topics connected with their departments which are of such current or general interest as would not ordinarily fall within the scope of the regular course, but yet illustrate the practical and popular significance of the work done in the class. These clubs meet sometimes at a professor's home, sometimes in a student's room, sometimes at a neighboring inn. All students in the latter part of the course who desire to join a club have the opportunity, and some have belonged to more than one. Besides promoting pleasant social relations, these clubs prove of substantial value in starting the students in lines of scholarly interest, and in connecting college study with the life of the outside world.

Such developments as these in our educational institutions are full of promise. The rapid growth of the colleges has brought difficult problems. Blind adherence to old methods, failure to recognize new difficulties, would furnish ground for serious apprehension as to the future. But when we find the authorities alive to the demands of the situation, and alert to devise methods for meeting those demands, there is every reason for confidence.

THE CHEVALIER DE ROHAN.

PARIS, June 13, 1899.

M. Ernest Daudet, the indefatigable searcher after inedited documents, has just laid his hand on curious memoirs, which were quite unknown, and which were written by an officer of the time of Louis XIV. named Du Cause de Nazelle. Nazelle was born in the province of Agenais, near Agen; he led the life of a soldier. His military career was not different from that of so many other young noblemen, and his memoirs, in which he speaks of his campaigns in Germany, in Flanders, in Holland, and even in Crete (whither he accompanied the Dukes of Beaufort and Navailles, in an expedition which ended very unfortunately), would probably not have been printed if M. Daudet had not found in them a very complete account of a famous conspiracy against Louis XIV. which made an immense noise in its time, and in which were implicated one of the members of the Rohan family, Louis de Rohan, who had been *grand veneur de France*, and a certain Latréaumont, who has become in our time the hero of a popular novel.

The first part of the memoirs is not without interest. Young Du Cause de Nazelle left his province at the age of fifteen (he was probably born in 1649, judging from the age of twenty-six which he declared at the trial of Rohan in 1674); he went to Paris and entered as a cadet the regiment of the Gardes Françaises. He had thus frequent occasion to become acquainted with the court. He left soon for the wars, but we will follow him only in his expedition to Candia, which was made at the request of the Republic of

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Venice. In 1648 the Turks undertook to capture the island of Crete, which the Venetians had held since 1204, and in 1667 were besieging Candia, the capital. The rest of Europe remained insensible to the appeals of Crete; Louis XIV. alone was moved by them, and decided in 1669 to extend some help; but it was too late and the French army was too small. M. de Nazelle was a lieutenant in one of the regiments which landed in the island. The Turks had the advantage. M. de Beaufort was killed, and the French were forced to retreat to their ships.

On his return, Nazelle made a campaign in Holland, and saw some service in the Gardes du Corps, and, after sundry adventures in which he seems to have played a dangerous part, he left the Guards and went to live under an assumed name in the house of a Dutchman called Van den Enden. Of Flemish origin, Van den Enden had the reputation of being a very learned man; he was familiar with all sciences, he knew almost all the living and dead languages—Hebrew, Syriac, Greek, Latin, German, Italian, Spanish, French; he knew even the principal provincial idioms of France. He was a philosopher, "Catholic with the Catholics," says Nazelle, "and Protestant with the Protestants. I have often seen some of our famous doctors and M. Arnauld [the great apostle of Jansenism] himself come to confer with him on the Hebrew and Syriac texts of the Gospel."

Van den Enden was in reality a spy, sent by the Spanish Governor of the Netherlands at a time when the courts of Spain and of France were in constant hostility. He became acquainted in Paris with many scientific men, and opened a school in the Picpus quarter, where he received many young men. He was already old, but he lived with a handsome woman whom he called his wife, though it was never ascertained whether they were really married.

Nazelle's attention was attracted by the visits which Latréaumont often made to Van den Enden.

"I had known him," he says, "as an officer in the army of very bad reputation. He entered by a secret door at the end of the garden, of which he had a key, and took extraordinary precautions not to be seen. He afterwards brought with him the Chevalier de Rohan by the same door and with the same precautions. The sight of the Chevalier de Rohan surprised me. I could not conceive that a man of his rank could have relations with Latréaumont, whose reputation was absolutely forfeited in the army, and who was known as a dangerous character, capable of the greatest crimes."

Latréaumont came of a good family of Normandy, but he was a reckless man and had lost caste. He attached his fortunes to the Chevalier de Rohan, a younger son of Louis de Rohan, Duke of Montbazon, and of Anne de Rohan, Princess of Guémené. At the age of twenty, in 1656, he inherited the office of *grand veneur*. He was one of the handsomest men of the court, and counted among his conquests Mlle. Duparc, the greatest actress of the day; Mme. de Lyonne, Mme. de Thianges, a sister of Mme. de Montespan, and, it was said, Mme. de Montespan herself. He helped the beautiful Hortense Mancini, Duchess of Mazarin, to flee from her eccentric husband. Louis XIV. asked him, on this occasion, to resign his office of *grand veneur*, as the elopement of the Duchess was a great scandal. From that day Rohan considered himself a victim of the King. He was thirty years old. His military services had been forgotten, and he was overwhelmed with debt when he met Latréaumont, who was one of the tools of Van den Enden. They told him that the provinces of the western part of Normandy were going to rise, with the help of the Spaniards, and that he might, with his name, find his advantage in the rebellion. Van den Enden promised him the sovereignty of Brittany.

Nazelle tells at length how, with the help of the youngest daughter of Van den Enden, he succeeded in discovering the details of the plot. He affected himself to be very much discontented with the Government; he had conversations with Van den Enden on the subject of the war with Holland. All the forces of France were employed in ruining a distant land; the people were obliged to pay exorbitant taxes. Van den Enden knew that the coasts of France were defenceless; it was easy to make a landing. The Protestants of the west, who were so far quiet, would rise if they found a favorable occasion. Van den Enden had conceived the bold project of kidnapping the Dauphin, who used often to hunt the wolf in the forests of Normandy; the Prince was generally alone with a huntsman; ten men were to seize him and transport him to a Dutch ship on the coast. Nazelle overheard the particulars of the conspiracy, and it was decided, when all was settled, that Van den Enden should start for Brussels, to make the last arrangements with the Spanish Governor. Du Cause de Nazelle was much agitated by the discovery he had made; he despised Latréaumont, but he had much regard for the family of Rohan, and he had a great admiration for Van den Enden. He decided, however, to make a report to the Marquis of Louvois, who was Secretary of War. Louvois gave him an audience, and immediately issued orders for the arrest of Latréaumont and Rohan. Van den Enden had left for Brussels, but was expected to return.

Latréaumont was arrested at Rouen by Brissac, whom he had known in the army. He fired at Brissac, but missed him, and, with a second pistol, at one of the guards who accompanied Brissac. The guards fired in return, and Latréaumont died from his wounds. The Chevalier de Rohan gave himself up without difficulty to the persons who were sent to arrest him, at Versailles, and was conducted to the Bastille. The Rohans did not attempt to interfere on his behalf; they were afraid to offend the King and to compromise themselves. Van den Enden returned to Paris two days after the arrest of his accomplices; he heard the news of it from his wife, and immediately concealed himself. Nazelle advised Louvois of his return, and was presented by him to the King, who wished to hear from his mouth how he had discovered the plot, and asked him to try to find traces of Van den Enden. Nazelle succeeded in finding him at Le Bourget, a small place on the outskirts of Paris. Van den Enden, seeing Nazelle among those who came to arrest him, thought for a moment that the Frenchman had been arrested as an accomplice, and said to the officer that he had never taken him into his confidence. He did not for an instant try to deny that he had been conspiring; he preserved the greatest composure, took leave of his wife and of Nazelle, to whom he gave a small box as a memorial. "I accepted the box," says Nazelle, "with the officer's permission, and I could not help wondering how a man, who from that moment was sure of his fate, could keep so cool. I remembered what he had so often maintained to me, that death is nothing, and that consequently it is no evil."

The Court and Paris were much surprised when the details of the conspiracy became known. The death of Latréaumont, who was the chief agent in the conspiracy, prevented the arrest of many accomplices, whom he alone knew. He had already ordered uniforms of guards for five hundred and fifty men, with whom he had planned to seize Honfleur, at the mouth of the Seine, opposite Havre. Louis XIV. said at Versailles that if the conspirators had succeeded in kidnapping the Dauphin, he would have made no change in his plans, notwithstanding the great affection which he felt for his son. Commissioners were designated to make the preliminary examination for the trial. Many persons of distinction at Court interested themselves for the Chevalier de Rohan, more out of hatred of Louvois, who had many enemies, than of affection for him. The Rohans themselves remained passive. The Princess of Soubise, who had great influence with the King, does not seem to have said anything in favor of her cousin. (Anne de Chabot was married in 1663 to her cousin François de Chabot, in favor of whom she obtained from Louis XIV. the erection into a principality of the barony of Soubise. She was extremely handsome, and became a mistress of the King.) The enemies of Louvois formed the party of the Chevalier de Rohan, but, numerous as they were, they could not save him. Louis XIV. called in council the Prince of Condé, Marshal Villeroy, M. le Tellier, Minister of State, and heard with them a report on the trial and the verdict. The great Condé, "so famous in our history by his victories and by the various incidents of his life, began his speech with what was most capable of touching the King. He said that after what he had himself experienced of the King's clemency, he believed that there was no man so guilty that he could not hope for pardon; that there was much extravagance in what Rohan had done, that his projects were very criminal, but could not be executed, being too chimerical." Le Tellier spoke in an opposite sense; after eight days of hesitation Louis XIV. decided that the verdict should be executed.

The Chevalier de Rohan died with great fortitude, and with every sign of repentance for his crime. His head was cut off before an immense crowd, who could not help pitying his youth. The Marquis de Villars and the Chevalier de Préau, who were in the plot (Navelle says very little about them and the part they took), were beheaded after him. Van den Enden seemed quite indifferent to his fate: "He showed the firmness and constancy of a hero." He was hanged like a vulgar criminal.

Correspondence.

THE TRUTH IN SPITE OF CENSORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There seems to be no way for the American people to get the whole truth from Manila so long as the military censorship continues, and this state of things may last for years. There is, however, one source of

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information which has as yet been drawn on in only the slightest degree, and that is the evidence contained in soldiers' letters. A private or line officer has not the best means for forming opinions, and yet, in the aggregate, the information contained in the letters from the front must give a sufficiently accurate picture of the conditions there, while the great number of personal observations contained in those letters by intelligent and wide-awake volunteers, would supply a mass of uncontrovertible testimony invaluable to those who are endeavoring to bring this erring nation back to the straight path of moral rectitude. Individual letters have here and there appeared in print, most of them in country newspapers, but why cannot a systematic effort be made to collect these valuable documents in numbers sufficient to carry conviction to the doubting?

The volunteers who have done the fighting in the Philippines come from towns scattered all over Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, Washington, Oregon, and a dozen other States. The home towns of the various companies can very easily be found, and correspondence with the families of the soldiers, based on the company rosters, would result in bringing to light an unlimited store of letters from the front. Or, better still, let a man be put into the field. A vigorous agent, in a few months' time, would unearth an amount of first-hand testimony which would be simply overwhelming. These letters, properly edited and published in a volume, would furnish a campaign document of unparalleled power. The Anti-Imperialist League has made a beginning in this line, though it has as yet done little more than reprint letters which have already been published; but the immense value of such material has been amply demonstrated by its little tract, "Soldiers' Letters." Cannot it take up the larger task of making a really comprehensive collection of these letters? Only by sheer mass of evidence can the country be brought to an adequate comprehension of the real state of things.

In no other way can such statements as those in Mr. Dean Worcester's open letter to the American people be combated. He tells us, with pompous officiousness, that he has personally inspected great numbers of battle-fields, and can assure the dear public that nothing rude or ungentlemanly has occurred. Enough has already been published to lead us to suspect that this indefatigable inspector of battle-fields has not obtained the whole truth. Would not a systematic compilation of soldier testimony do more than anything else to stop this tiresome official reiteration that "all is lovely" in our new tropical possessions? EDSON R. SUNDERLAND.

OAKLAND, CAL., June 28, 1899.

THE KENTUCKY NOMINEE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Democratic State convention which adjourned yesterday has nominated for Governor a man who, if elected, will be to Kentucky what Platt is to New York. That he will be elected, no sane man doubts for an instant, for he is the author of an election law, passed by the last General Assembly, by means of which he can become Governor, no matter what may be the will of the people.

His nomination was accomplished by the boldest piece of thievery ever perpetrated in Kentucky politics. When the convention was called to order, he was the weakest of the three candidates in number of instructed votes, but, by combining with the Stone men, he effected the organization. After that, he dictated every action of the convention. His chairman ruled that the contests should be voted on as a whole, the contesting counties not voting. Thus, one hundred and fifty-nine anti-Goebel delegates were thrown out, and a like number of Goebel delegates seated; and the chairman would entertain no appeal from his ruling.

Personally, Goebel is a brilliant young man, and is conceded by all to be the shrewdest as well as the most unscrupulous politician in Kentucky. He has too much sense to be for free silver, but recently went over to that camp in order to make this race. For a dozen years he has been the ruler of the Kentucky Senate, the dominant motive in his career being opposition to corporations. With the party machinery in his hands, he will henceforth rule Kentucky.

There is, however, one bit of encouragement. When Goebel captured the party machinery, free silver suffered. Although his platform endorses the Chicago nonsense of 1896, nevertheless, every one knows Goebel to be its enemy. The gold-standard men, however, are opposed to both Goebel and his methods.—Very respectfully, B.

WINCHESTER, KY., June 29, 1899.

RUSKIN AND MILLAIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of William Rossetti's new book there are some misapprehensions that do injustice to Ruskin, and which an intimate personal knowledge of the man enables me to correct at first hand. It is untrue that "Ruskin could never see any merit in the work of Millais after their personal quarrel," nor is it even true that he quarrelled with Millais—the quarrel came from the other side. The "known fact" in the matter is this: Ruskin invited Millais to come and pass the summer with them in Scotland, and Millais and Mrs. Ruskin "fell in love" with each other, and she applied for a divorce to be free to marry Millais. Ruskin, in spite of the insistence of his father, refused to oppose the suit, and he was so far from "quarrelling" with Millais that he wrote him expressing the desire that their personal relations should not be changed by the affair. I have repeatedly talked with Ruskin on the subject, and he always expressed the utmost consideration for Millais, and he said to me that "the only regret he had for the occurrence was that Mrs. Millais had ruined a great artist." I am certain that he cherished no animosity towards Millais, nor did he modify in any respect his opinion of his art; but it must be remembered that Millais, very soon after this change in his life, changed the character of his art so completely that he was regarded by the other pre-Raphaelites as a renegade to the principles of the brotherhood—a change due, in Ruskin's opinion, to the urgency to increase his income under Mrs. Millais's influence, which led him to paint for money. Under the circumstances, it is easy to understand that any further criticism of Millais's work became difficult on account of the inevitably false interpretation which Ruskin's enemies would have given it, and it was owing to the delicacy of their relation that he never made him the subject of comment; not to the rupture in their intercourse.

Ruskin was not only singularly generous and liberal, but singularly just when he saw a matter rightly, but he conceived violent antipathies, especially for people who disregarded his opinions, for he held them, as he himself has said, "not as opinions, but as positive knowledge." When he and Brown came into collision, it was as if two popes met in controversy: they were two infallibles, and Brown was as unforgiving for any difference from his opinions as Ruskin, and far less ready to reason out the matter, which Ruskin did with extreme grace, though, unfortunately for himself, he always returned to his opinion when the discussion was forgotten.

Few people can know Ruskin better than I do—very few know so well his high moral nobility, his generosity, and the warmth of his friendship; but probably no one else has ever paid so heavy a penalty for submitting to his leading and undergoing his caprice, and I have experienced his good as his bad qualities, so that I am competent to say with authority that the dictum of your critic, that "of justice or of moderation he is alike incapable," is unjust and excessive. That he is not always just or moderate may be said, but no more. His lavish generosity to Rossetti, Burne-Jones, Millais, when generosity was life, besides scores of minor instances in which the recipients have never been known, cannot be offset by the cases in which his exactions were onerous and his friendship capricious. No other man living has the right to complain of Ruskin that I have, but I cannot permit personal and temperamental defects to obscure the proper estimation of one of the noblest and most Christian characters of our time.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

WEST BOURNEMOUTH, ENGLAND.

Notes.

'Books Worth Reading,' by Frank W. Rafferty, and 'The Foundations of the Creed,' by the Lord Bishop of Carlisle, are on the eve of being published by E. P. Dutton & Co.

The Macmillan Co. announce a series of seven volumes on the History of the Church of England, edited by the Dean of Winchester. The first volume, by William Hunt, D.D., will bring the record down from the landing of St. Augustine to the Norman Conquest. They will also publish 'Gardens, Ancient and Modern,' by H. Forbes Sieveking.

'When Grandmamma Was New,' by Marion Harland, is in the press of the Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston.

The American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, has made a volume of the discussion of 'The Foreign Policy of the United States, Political and Commercial,' at its April meeting, of which we gave a general report at the time. Prof. Woolsey, E. W. Huffcut, A. Lawrence Lowell, Carl Schurz, Worthington C. Ford, and J. B. Moore are some of the more prominent speakers.

Cassell & Co. issue 'Royal Academy Pictures 1899' in the usual form, as being a supplement to their *Magazine of Art*. Our London correspondent has given our readers some notion of what they may expect to find in these samples of the exhibition. There are a few portraits of notable characters—busts of Dr. Garnett and of the Queen, and a painting of Gerald Balfour, among others. There is no text beyond a brief introduction.

From Mr. C. A. Ellis, manager of the

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Boston Symphony Orchestra, we have received the usual bound volume of the programmes played at the six concerts given in Boston last season. The value of these programmes lies in the historic and descriptive notes contributed by Mr. W. F. Apthorp, and in the literary interludes on miscellaneous musical topics, in which Mr. Apthorp shows to the best advantage. A list of these topics ought to be included in the summary at the end of the volume.

A new edition of Mr. James E. Matthew's 'Handbook of Musical History and Bibliography' has been issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons, with such changes as were called for by the death, since the first issue, of Brahms, Gounod, Rubinstein, Ambroise Thomas, and other composers of distinction.

'Laurel Winners' is the title of a brochure of 118 pages published by the John Church Company. It contains short biographies of thirty American composers. The absence of Paine, Foote, Kelley, Parker, and MacDowell from the list prevents it from being a comprehensive treatise on American composers, and the utility of the book is further lessened by the fact that the list of works given in each case includes only those issued by the publishers of the book. However, as far as it goes; it is an acceptable contribution to a field of biography in which it is sometimes difficult to get authentic information.

The fourth volume of the Wolseley Series of military works (importation of Charles Scribner's Sons) is 'The Conduct of War,' by Gen. von der Goltz, translated by Major Leverson, Royal Engineers. It is a systematic treatise on the modern method of conducting war, condensing into 300 open-print pages the outline of the military art. It is intended to be a handbook for the use of officers and students, and does not aim to supplant the larger treatises of Clausewitz or Jomini, or special works on strategy like that of Hohenlohe. In a former small volume, 'The Nation in Arms,' the author has treated the raising, equipping, and organizing of armies, and he promises a final one covering the relations of a general to his army, including the system of intelligence, the publication and transmission of orders, etc. The recognized merit of the writer is his clearness of thought and style, and he has been well seconded by the translator, who gives us a good idiomatic English rendering.

Another military work which has attracted much attention in Europe is Hoenig's 'Inquiries concerning the Tactics of the Future,' translated by Capt. Bower of the English Army, and published with maps by Longmans, Green & Co. (8vo, pp. xxv, 363). The present edition is a considerable enlargement of one first published under the title of 'Two Brigades,' in which, using his experience in the battle of Königgrätz (1866) and at Mars-la-Tour (1870), the author boldly criticised the General-Staff history, and drew important conclusions from the corrected account of what passed under his own eye. His thesis was that the lessons of the terrible conflicts about Metz had not been fully learned, and that the tactics since adopted, as those evolved from the effects of new weapons and smokeless powder, need important modifications, in view of the true history of late wars. The work was in the nature of a rebellion against the opposition of the Prussian General Staff to any questioning of the official history, and showed an independence of thought and force of reasoning which compelled attention. The translator has been laborious and conscientious, but his English is often tangled with the German idioms, and one sometimes feels the need of the original as a "pony" to help out the translation. For instance, what would an Englishman, unacquainted with the German, make of this sentence: "It is like the senseless rule of crude forces, and therewith has never anything been attained"? (p. 300).

Mr. Wiley Britton has published the second volume of his 'Civil War on the Border' (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 8vo, pp. 546), which, with the former volume (1890), completes his narrative of military operations in Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, and the Indian Territory. The work bears the marks of careful compilation and good use of the opportunities given by the author's connection with the War Office at Washington, and deals with campaigns in which he had a part. It is well printed, with ornamental head and tail-pieces, maps, and illustrations. It has two serious deficiencies: it is without an index, though this is partly supplied by full analytic tables of contents of the chapters. It lacks the references to the Official Records, without which any testing of the narrative is very laborious and difficult. The conflict of assertions between Confederate and national writers is perhaps more sharp in discussions of these frontier campaigns than elsewhere, the charges of brigandage and violation of the laws of war are more frequent, and the array of the author's authorities was therefore more imperative than usual. By this omission he loses the weight as an authority which would have been given him if his accuracy as an historian could be proved by his use of his materials.

Taking *cum grano* the author's suggestion that, "for the ordinary man with the ordinary purse," there is not "a better playground to be had in Great Britain or the Continent," some visitors to Ireland could not do better than purchase Stephen Gwynn's 'Highways and Byways in Donegal and Antrim' (Macmillan), and visit the districts described. There is too much history, too much effort to place the now matter-of-fact inhabitants of that part of Ireland in an "interesting" light; the author makes too little allowance for capricious weather (often for weeks fatal to all enjoyment); but upon the whole the book is lively and interesting. The illustrations are charming; we have never seen better of Irish life and character. "The Church," "The Royal Irish," "The Cattle Drover," "The Guide," "The Piper," "The Donegal Lass," "A Low-Backed Car," are, to any one who knows Ireland and has a sense of humor, in themselves worth the price of the book.

In 'Homère: Étude Historique et Critique' (Paris: Fontemoing). M. Victor Terret has written more than 600 pages of extreme interest to lovers and students of the Homeric poems. His first chapter deals with the tradition as to the life, time, and residence of Homer, which is followed by a consideration of the MSS. of the poems in their relation to the early critics. With chapter 3 begins the discussion of modern Homeric criticism, which is then examined in its relation to both 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey.' The conclusions of the author are thoroughly in favor of the unity and authenticity of the poems, as he has an answer to all the arguments brought forth by the several schools of criticism. In conclusion comes a chapter on art in the poems, followed by a fairly good bibliography of works on Homer filling 100 pages. The book will be welcomed by conservatives who still prefer to maintain their belief in the reality of Homer.

The *Sewance Review* of the University of the South, a serious quarterly review of history and literature, edited by Prof. William P. Trent, will hereafter bear the imprint of Longmans, Green & Co.

The hydrography of the Caucausus, with maps, and the native tribes of the upper Ubangi Basin are the subjects treated in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June. In the notes, a favorable account is given of the economic condition of German East Africa. The trade is steadily increasing, in consequence largely of the fact that the Government has constructed nearly eight hundred miles of road for wheeled carriages. The principal products are tobacco, sugar, and coffee, the last being cultivated by native labor under German supervision. Notwithstanding the injury to the coffee plants from drought and locusts, the export of the year 1897-98 was nearly three times as great as that of the previous year.

The principal topic of the *Geographical Journal* for June is the Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau. Capt. Boileau, a member of the Anglo-German Boundary Commission, gives a topographical description of the region and an unusually sympathetic account of the natives. They are industrious, honest, "extraordinarily unselfish," and keenly appreciative of the value of industrial education. At the Livingstonia Mission school at Bandawe and in the branches within the radius of twenty miles the daily attendance was 6,000, each child paying six cents for a session of three months. "This, it is found, secures a regular attendance, owing to a feeling, not altogether extinct among ourselves, of 'having our money's worth,' and consequently it gives the teachers a much greater hold over the pupils than if the teaching were given gratis." The most interesting part also of Mr. L. A. Wallace's narrative of his explorations in this same region is that in which he describes the customs, superstitions, industries, and amusements of the natives who accompanied him on his expeditions. The set phrases of some of their longer songs and stories, he discovered, were not fully understood by the people, and he suggests that they may be the remains of an archaic language handed down orally through many generations. A detailed account is given of Lake Rukwa, which he was the first European to explore thoroughly, and also of Lake Mweru and of the extraordinary fluctuation of the water in all this region. The great Mweru marsh, a noted resort for elephants, has recently been proclaimed a preserve by order of the British South Africa Company.

The Paris Geographical Society has reciprocated the courtesy of the Royal Geographical Society, which presented two medals to Frenchmen at its annual meeting in June, by awarding a medal to Mr. F. G. Jackson, the well-known Arctic explorer. At the same meeting of the British Society our Ambassador, Mr. Choate, in behalf of the American Geographical Society of New York, presented a medal to Sir John Murray of *Challenger* fame.

A movement of practical bearing upon the well-being of man and beast is the advance-

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ment of veterinary science, which has recently received a new impulse in Switzerland. It is not improbable that the excellent veterinary school at Berne will ere long be united with the University as a special faculty, in which case the students would be held to the same preparatory requirements at those of (human) medicine and be recognized as candidates for the doctor's degree. The University of Giessen already confers the degree of *doctor medicinæ veterinariæ* upon German veterinarians in possession of a *Maturitätszeugniss;* but in other German veterinary institutions the requirements for admission and graduation are comparatively low. Dr. von Salvisberg, the editor of *Hochschul-Nachrichten,* points out, in a recent number of his paper, the timeliness of elevating veterinary studies to a plane corresponding to the advanced state of the tributary sciences.

—The Nebraska Historical Society prints the Journals of William Walker, Provisional Governor of the Territory, with notes by William E. Connelley. Walker was of Indian blood, belonging to the Big Turtle Clan of the Wyandot tribe, and of much influence among the Indians. He was a classmate of S. P. Chase, had served as Secretary to Gen. Cass, and in 1843 went with his tribe to Kansas (which then included Nebraska). The discoveries of gold in California in 1849 led to a large migration of persons through this Territory, and the pressure of population from the East was increasing. It was obvious that the white men would want the lands, and for them to want was to have, in spite of treaty obligations. The Indians determined to institute a Territorial government, and carried it through in the face of objection and obstruction from Washington. Walker was the first Governor, chosen by his nation, and at the first election of delegate to Congress the candidate he favored was defeated, by means which indicated the nature of the situation. The opposition "had the whole power of the Federal Government, the presence and active support of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, the military, the Indian agents, missionaries, Indian traders, etc.—a combined power that was irresistible." A slaveholder, Walker hated abolitionism, and when the time came for his nation to decide between North and South, it went over to the side of slavery. The feeling was intensified by the fact that it was a church question, a split in the Methodist Church; and four years after the break, Walker wrote a sixteen-page letter to show up the preachers of the northern division of the church and their abolitionism.

—It is not for their bearing on national politics that the Journals are most interesting. They tell more of the life on the frontier of these half-breeds, the incidents of a new settlement under a somewhat better government than their white neighbors could show. The Council was regularly elected each year, passed laws, made regulations, held trials, and granted divorces. There was much killing, and the drinking was general and deadly—"mania a potu" being frequently recorded. As Indians, the people kept up some of the tribal observances, such as the grand dances and the green-corn feast. As whites, they gave dinners, entertained strangers, and received instruction in music. Certain superstitions remained in force; Friday as an evil day being one, and the holding in the hand of a live mole till it was dead, a supposed cure for rheumatism, being another. An excessive indulgence in drugs may also be noted, and Walker adopts, in 1846, the "Turkish custom" of a daily sponge bath, a practice not common in the East at that early day. Walker was a man of more ability than his Journals show, for he was an eager reader of the newspapers and a frequent contributor to them, a critic of Schoolcraft, a correspondent of Lyman Draper on Indian affairs; and he read 'David Copperfield.' His daily life was varied. "Chunked up my log heap. Finished my letter to the Archbishop. Must attend a special meeting of the chiefs to-day to prepare for the convocation of the nation to-morrow"—was the record on one day. Some interesting extracts from the diary of Abelard Guthrie, the agent of the Territory at Washington, are given, and the work is enriched with much personal history collected by Mr. Connelley. The French sentences, of which there are many, need much revision.

—The results of the hypsometric measurements recently made by Sir William Martin Conway of the High Andes of Bolivia seem to determine definitively that Aconcagua, in Argentina, is the loftiest summit of the American Cordilleras, and accordingly the culminating point of the entire Western Hemisphere. Although this was the general assumption of geographers, the rival claims of the Nevado de Sorata and Illimani, which in the older geographies were represented to have altitudes respectively of 25,200 and nearly 24,000 feet, and even quite recently to approximate these heights, have left the question an open one. The present observations reduce these elevations to 21,710 feet (for the highest peak of the Sorata or Illampu) and 21,015 feet, a result strikingly in accord with that obtained by Minchin—21,470 and 21,224 feet—and about equally correspondent with that derived by the English geologist Pentland from his revised triangulation conducted in 1838, which gave 21,286 feet for the Sorata and 21,145 feet for Illimani. The absolute altitude of Aconcagua is, perhaps, still in doubt, but the measurements of Fitzgerald and Zurbriggen, made during their late successful and unsuccessful attempts to attain the summits, would seem to give the mountain a height fully equal to that which had been assumed for it by Fitzroy and Darwin, 23,200 feet, and about a thousand feet more than was claimed by the Spanish engineer Pissis (22,422 feet). The Sorata and Illimani now not impossibly also yield second place, as a number of summits, both in northern Chili and in Bolivia, are close competitors, and have at least the advantage of being reputed to be more lofty.

—With these revised measurements of the South American summits it is interesting to note that the North American mountains have likewise suffered some change as regards their respective claims to supremacy. Mounts Brown and Hooker, which for a long time occupied on the map a position among the Canadian Rockies as generous rivals of the highest peaks of the Alps, have, so far as it has been possible to identify these mountains in the field, suddenly withdrawn 4,000 to 6,000 feet of their accredited heights, and are now only modest elevations of less (perhaps considerably less) than 11,000 feet. A somewhat similar fate befell Mount Hood, in Oregon, the better part of a quarter of a century ago, when its sudden fall from stages of 17,000, 15,000, and 13,000 feet brought out the saying that a new measurement (subsequently made by Lieut. Williamson) would reduce the volcano to a hole in the ground. Fifteen hundred feet has been taken off the summit of Mount St. Elias, in Alaska, as a result of recent measurements, leaving it second in height to Orizaba, in Mexico, as one of the culminating points of the North American continent. A compensation for this loss is, however, had in the superior height of Mount Logan, which stands near to it in British territory (assumed to be 19,500 feet), and in that of the giant mountain of central Alaska, south of the middle course of the Yukon, which has been "developed" as the result of the recent exodus to the gold regions. A late Government survey gives to this mountain (the Mt. McKinley of the newer maps—*Bolshaya* of the Russians)—an elevation of 20,464 feet, and, therefore, the highest eminence north of South America.

—A work of high importance has just been issued in Paris under the direction of the Commision of the Naval Records. It is called 'État sommaire des Archives de la Marine antérieures à la Révolution,' and was prepared for publication by M. D. Neuville. The almost chaotic condition of the French archives has been a sore trial to those wishing to obtain material from them, and this careful list of the manuscript volumes, with a glance at the general nature of their contents, will be a welcome guide. The operations of the French navy in American waters during the colonial period and in aid of the American Revolution (the latter in thirty-nine volumes) are merely special phases of its history. There are four volumes of personal notes and letters from D'Estaing, and two volumes of letters addressed to him. The records include all the ordinances relating to the navy and the construction of ships, lists of the officers and men, dispatches from civil and naval officers at home ports, in the colonies, and in foreign countries; the notes and orders from the King and his ministers of the navy; memoirs on the defence of the kingdom and on naval operations abroad; the expenses of maintenance and construction. Not a branch of naval activity is neglected, and the records extend from 1278 to 1790. This mine of manuscript material has hardly been touched by investigators.

—The files of the Marine Office are not complete, for much has been placed in other departments, like that of Foreign Affairs and the Hydrographic Bureau, and much has been lost. The National Library has some of the records, the Mazarine Library other parts, and the Ministry of the Colonies has claimed not a little for its service. The records for 1771 can be found only in the different ports where agents were placed, while those for 1786 to 1789 are very incomplete, owing to the destruction of papers during the Revolution. M. Neuville has prepared many notes giving short sketches of the principal officers of the marine, and has indicated the changes in organization, or in the details of management, which have affected the relations of the navy to the Government, or the different divisions to each other. Not the least interesting are the consequences of political or religious events such as the revocation of the Edict of Nantes or the expulsion of the Jesuits (p. lv). A brief list is given of the men of science who have been connected with the navy, and of the voyages of discovery or exploration set on foot by this branch of the service—an honorable record,

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indeed. M. Neuville notes with some pride that Spain and Russia adopted their naval administrations from that of France, and borrowed French engineers, constructors, and officers to organize their marines, to arm their ships, and even to lead them against the enemy. One chapter should not be overlooked, viz., that which tells of the *Chiourmes*, men condemned to penal servitude but employed in the arsenals and the galleys. Of course, the galleys are an important detail in this interesting and valuable compilation. An index is to follow.

—The twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding, by Godefroid Kurth of a practical course of historical instruction at the University of Liége, in 1874, has been celebrated by his friends and colleagues in a handsome volume, edited by Paul Fredericq, recounting the development in Belgium of scientific training in historical studies. This method of teaching history, which has produced results so admirable, was started so long ago as 1830, by Leopold Ranke. It spread through Germany and Austria, and in 1868 Victor Duruy introduced it in France by founding the École Pratique des Hautes Études. Its development in Belgium, after the initiative of Prof. Kurth, was the work of earnest and self-sacrificing men, who, without governmental assistance or the equipment essential for the full advantages of the system, resolutely persevered until, in 1890, their voluntary courses of instruction were recognized officially as part of the curriculum of the universities, although the necessary financial assistance has still been withheld. The main portion of the volume consists of reports of sixteen of these courses, showing the various plans adopted to overcome obstacles and to produce results with inadequate means. It is a story full of encouragement, and ought, we think, to afford valuable hints to those in our country who are engaged in the task of elevating the study of history from a mere mnemonic exercise to the position of a veritable science.

PATTEN'S DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH THOUGHT.

The Development of English Thought: A Study in the Economic Interpretation of History. By Simon N. Patten, Ph.D., Professor of Political Economy, Wharton School of Finance and Economics, University of Pennsylvania. Macmillan. 1899. Pp. xxvii, 415.

This book rejoices in the reproach of paradox. Its dominant principle is that to write the history of English thought you must study something else. The common notion is that the history of a people's intellectual life is like the history of a special science, like the history of geometry. There is a special matter to be understood on the one side, there are a number of persons investigating it on the other. One man discovers one thing, another another thing; each teaches and learns from his companion, and the whole affair is a matter of pure intelligence. Its development is a continuous growth from within. In the case of a people, the subject to be investigated is simply the universe, and the persons investigating are simply everybody. In distinction from this, Dr. Patten's notion is that "necessities of survival take precedence of matter of fact." A people's ideals and way of looking at things are not and cannot be determined primarily by intelligence. They must be such as confirm that people in habits that fit it to its environment, and the ideals and beliefs that fit one people at one time do not fit another people or the same people at another time. The beliefs are determined not by intelligence but by the environment. "Heredity thus creates both the ideals of a race and the motor reactions through which they may be realized"; and if these change, it is because the environment has changed first. The beneficent lie—say, for the followers of Mahomet, the dogma of the Mohammedan paradise—takes precedence of the discouraging truth; and individuals who discover the latter are simply eliminated in the struggle for existence. They are handicapped by the disease of an untimely intelligence. The intellectual life of a people does not develop from within and is not a continuum, it is simply a succession of by-products, of indications of a succession of changes in something else; and histories of thought on the model of the usual histories of philosophy are dull because they are unintelligent; they are simply a succession of anecdotes with dates and names. "History, to be valuable, must be studied in groups, and each group of ideas connected with its roots in the underlying conditions, and not with its antecedents in the same group." "Each nation has as many epochs in the development of its thought as it has marked changes in its environment."

The changes in the environment, then, of a people are, in Dr. Patten's judgment, what the historian of thought must first master; and, migration apart, the changes in a people's environment are for the most part economic. The importation of a new foodstuff or material for clothing has more to do with the development of thought than all the doctors of all the schools. The growth in England, for example, of Puritanism and all that it has meant for literature and ways of thinking about morality and the family, was due, in Dr. Patten's judgment, in the main to the introduction—well!—of woollen underclothing and sufficient shelter. There was a time when the Englishman, in his inclement climate, was clothed in linen, and was ill-housed. The feeble simply never reached maturity in such circumstances. The survivors were literally riotous with health, and all their institutions—their food, their merrymakings and games, no less than their literature and habits of speech and thought—reflected their temperament. "Men lived only for a moment; they acted quickly and fiercely," because, on the whole, only by so acting could they act and live at all. And "in fighting clans it was necessary to offer every inducement for childbearing. Festivals, feasts, and social gatherings were designed to provoke the passions." Chastity becomes a dominant motive only after economic welfare has progressed so far that the danger to the community is over-population rather then under-population.

"Even a century ago, men enjoyed washing out of doors in winter, and loved to throw ice-water over their bare shoulders. The internal furnaces raged so fiercely that only by such means could they be rendered bearable. Picture the early English clothed in linen instead of wool, and you will begin to realize what constitutions they had."

"There is no better way of showing the results of economic changes than to take this man of nature and put him into heavy woollen clothes, build him a comfortable house, and set him by a blazing fire. The fierce internal combustion and the vigorous appetite will not only be useless, but positively injurious. The fires must be banked and the appetites reduced. Changes like these cannot take place in a day without evil results. The dissipation that Englishmen plunged into was largely due to the suddenness of the economic change. What could not come to the surface went to the heart and corrupted it. In contrast to this natural Englishman we must think of the Puritan as a man needing warm clothing and a comfortably heated house. He wore mufflers and fur-gloves when out of doors, and used pills instead of exercise to promote his digestion."

His mode of thought in effect was but the expression of his temperament; and it and he became dominant in English life, not because of any truth to fact in their way of looking at things, nor because of the genius of Hampden and Cromwell and their kind, nor because the Puritan by temperament was a new thing in the world, but because in the old circumstances the Puritan baby died in the cradle, and in the new circumstances the Cavalier baby was diseased in his manhood.

The main criticism to be passed on Dr. Patten's book is, that it is a large general theory which, in its application to the history of English thought, he has illustrated rather than proved. The theory itself makes a powerful appeal to a generation that has been subjected to the vogue of the "development hypothesis"; and the actuality of the beneficent lie, of the invigorating illusion, will hardly be denied except by the enthusiast who illustrates in his own person the fact which he ignores. But the circumspect theorist, who is conscious of a plurality of possible causes, will ask for a great deal more evidence than Dr. Patten has given that the Puritan really did possess a feebler constitution than the Cavalier, or a different constitution, and that the Cavalier's comparative ineffectiveness was for the most part due, however remotely, to his inherited vigor. Also, when Dr. Patten comes to select specific authors in whom to trace and to explain the course of English thought, his choice, in especial his choice in omissions—Berkeley, for example—is apt to seem to the reader to be governed by the exigencies of his theory; and the necessity under which he finds himself of reconstructing their books, sometimes on inferential grounds, cannot but leave the reader with a sense of legerdemain, in spite of the wholly probable principles of interpretation upon which Dr. Patten proceeds, viz., that "all great writers are lazy," and that "discovery follows a natural track, but expression has all the errors of current education." It may seem a more serious criticism that, in his reconstruction of the writings of the philosophers, Dr. Patten makes here and there a statement about them which the specialist will probably challenge outright. But it must be remembered that none of Dr. Patten's illustrations are of the essence of his argument; and that his errors in detail, if errors they be, are but the blemishes which, by a preëstablished discord, are always present in books too good to be wholly academic.

In any case, Dr. Patten's conviction, that the ideals and deepest beliefs of men are determined in accordance with the law of causation rather than in accordance with the laws of right thinking, is one in which philosophers, as distinguished from metaphysicians, may well find their account; and the last word of any criticism of the 'Development of English Thought' must be that the book is persistently and almost wantonly intelligent.

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Even a hostile critic will hasten to admit that it is clever, and will add at once that it is clever at a great depth. It is clever page by page, and sentence by sentence, in season and out of season—if cleverness in a book is ever unseasonable. There is everywhere in it the suggestion of a quaint humor which has counted for something in the insistence on woollen underclothing, the bath-tub, the sugar diet, and the motherly man, and it is full of *obiter dicta* which, by force of sheer perceptiveness (we do not say sheer sense for fact), have much the effect of wit:

"Home is a concept the power of which depends even more on what it excludes than on what it contains." "The law aims at securing peace, not justice, and vests property-rights in things possessed, not in things earned." "New conditions give modern nations in each new epoch the same impetus to progress that in former times they gave new nations." "The enduring nations are kept progressive by repeated transition from one environment to another, in each of which the process of development and adjustment is renewed." "The striking features of every progressive nation are due to the breach between the national character and the environment." "As a race, we no longer see the world as it is, but as we make it," and "our appetites are stronger than they need be to secure survival under present environing conditions." "The only remedy for vice is elimination. Those ideals that represent the highest type of men as possessing strong appetites and passions under firm control, are based on false premises. This control is possible only under primitive conditions, where strong appetites and passions are necessary."

Of longer passages, the following is at the moment, perhaps, especially pertinent:

"There is really nothing on which the English race can base the claim they so often make that they have a peculiar aptitude for the development of political institutions. They have been too conservative to develop institutional life beyond the needs of a primitive society. [Dr. Patten on another page speaks of "the difficulty of governing half the world on principles that are fitted for a country town."] Peace and security have come not from Anglo-American institutions, but from the instincts inculcated during the supremacy of the Church, the favorable economic conditions, and that spirit of compromise which has been forced on the race by the presence of opposing types of men. Given these instincts and conditions, almost any institutions would be successful. Where these conditions are lacking, the failure of our institutions is lamentably apparent, and our inability to remedy them even more obvious."

THE PITFALLS OF GENEALOGY.

The Principal Genealogical Specialist; or, Regina v. Davies, and the Shipway Genealogy. By W. P. W. Phillimore. London. 1899. Pp. 64.

Matthews's American Armoury and Blue Book. London: John Matthews.

The forgery of a pedigree has always been an attractive pursuit for literary rascals. It is so easy to change a name or a date, so easy to copy genuine documents with such a change, and yet have the result otherwise impregnable to literary criticism—the very critics are so friendly and the rewards generally so generous—that it is not surprising to find the taint of fraud resting upon scores of genealogies. In fact, the real genealogist hesitates to accept any authority, excepting one tried as by fire, for any statement, however trivial. The respect for ties of ancestry and relationship which seems innate in all British races, the desire to come of good stock, leads to a facile reception of all stories, and especially of all documents, which seem to dignify the bearers of an old name. The proofs are rarely understood by the persons interested, being old documents written centuries ago, in a handwriting decipherable only by experts. The public is but slightly interested in the truth, and false politeness forbids any criticism of the pedigree of an acquaintance, even as you would forbear testing the quality of his silver at a dinner party. For example, how many of your friends parade coats-of-arms on their rings and their note-paper, and yet how often do you stop to inquire into the genuineness of such pretensions? Every man is allowed to make his claim, protected by the fact that his neighbor is sinning similarly.

Great Britain has kept herself very free from spurious peers. The democratic principle by which only one of the heirs of a peer in each generation becomes a peer, and the rapidity with which the junior branches lose even courtesy titles, has a very salutary effect upon pretenders. The title of Earl of Derby is one of the landmarks of English history; but the late Prime Minister entered Parliament as a commoner, Mr. Smith-Stanley. Queen Victoria may live to see her great-grandchildren return to the ranks of the gentry. Four or five generations have brought the descendants of William Duff, the corn-factor, Earl of Fife, to a royal alliance; the same number of descents will bring them back to the Duffs. Once in a great while some one lays claim to a forgotten peerage, some title forfeited or in abeyance is revived by royal favor, but always after as close a scrutiny and compliance with proper laws as if the revenues of the Duke of Westminster were involved.

But alongside the peerage there exists the untitled class of gentlemen of birth and coat-armor having a claim to social recognition most precious in their eyes. To gain admission into this charmed circle is a distinction, yet a claim thereto is not such a challenge to the whole world as the assumption of a title. Here, therefore, is the great field for the enterprise of the pedigree-maker, and it is the one which has afforded the greatest triumphs of his skill. The immense fortunes accumulated within a century in commerce and the arts have brought forward millionaires able to buy every luxury but ancestry. Why should this crowning glory be denied them? In fact, the supply equals the demand, and the gorgeous fictions of Sir Bernard Burke do credit to Ananias. Of course, from time to time, some indignant critic exposes a specially flagrant case, but after a brief space the trade revives. In 1864 a distinguished Scotch antiquary, who wrote much over the signature of "Anglo-Scotus," exposed to scorn the famous Coulthart pedigree, perhaps the boldest and most absurd of all examples. For some ten or twelve years, by pamphlets, engravings, and even by memorial windows and tombs, the presumed records of the great Coulthart family had been made public. County histories, genealogical magazines, even Burke's 'Landed Gentry,' were crowded with citations from the annals of the family of John Ross Coulthart of Coulthart, traced through thirty generations to Coulthartus, a Roman lieutenant under Julius Agricola. In every generation the Coultharts were famous in war and fortunate in matrimony. In 1240 Sir Roger was granted the famous coat-of-arms of three black colts courant on a silver shield, and married a daughter of Walter the Steward of Scotland. In each generation knights maintained the family honors, and their wives were from distinguished families. And yet the slightest investigation showed that this pedigree was an absolute fabrication, the proofs being absolutely and amusingly set forth in the book entitled 'Popular Genealogists, or the Art of Pedigree-making.' It was shown that there never was any clan of Coulthart, no barony, no knights, no noble alliances, no person of the name holding even a small piece of land worthy of record. The very coat-of-arms was merely a modern grant, purchasable by any one. The earliest ancestor capable of identification seems to have lived in the last century, and was great-great-grandfather of the credulous gentleman at whose expense this fairy tale was prepared.

It is understood that this exposure had a salutary effect for years, but the first book cited at the head of this article refers to a recent fraud and a late exposure. It is not a glorious fraud like the other, but it has some novel features. In 1895 one Col. Shipway, knowing only that his grandfather came from Gloucestershire, desired to trace his ancestry. To his misfortune he met one Herbert A. Davies, "the principal genealogical specialist," whom he engaged, for some $9 a week and expenses, to make researches. Mr. Davies went for facts, and soon reported the existence of parish records, wills, family records, etc., of Shipways and the ancestry of his patron. He forged the necessary proofs, and crowned his exploits by stealing the tomb of one Hicks in Mangotsfield, a new tombstone being set up; a monument to the Blounts was also appropriated and turned over to the alleged Shipways. Owing to the gross carelessness of officials, Davies had access to the original wills at Hereford and Worcester, and he substituted forgeries in the files. He also borrowed and altered the parish records.

Retribution came when Mr. Phillimore was informed by Col. Shipway of these interesting discoveries. The antiquary promptly recognized the forgery, and began investigations. Luckily, Col. Shipway communicated Mr. Phillimore's report to his solicitors, Messrs. Underwood & Upton. We say luckily, because Mr. Underwood, jr. (why did they leave the second mate in charge?), wrote several supercilious and pompous letters to Mr. Phillimore, severally criticising his report, and adding that he (the aforesaid second mate) had had the whole of the papers inspected by a "gentleman" who, we believe, is recognized as the *highest authority* in these matters, and he has pronounced them *perfectly genuine*," while Mr. Phillimore's points were "absolutely futile and without foundation." Alas, poor Davies! This impertinence sealed his fate. No genuine genealogist, especially one as learned and as prominent as Mr. Phillimore, could brook such an insult from a layman. Col. Shipway was wise enough to trust the expert, and, by due process of law, the whole miserable imposture was exposed. Mr. Davies got about $3,500 from his employer and a sentence of three years' penal servitude from the Court.

It is only fair to add that Mr. Phillimore's interference was due not merely to his zeal as an antiquary, but to his belief that the "public records are mostly in a very inefficient custody." "They are exposed to every danger of theft, fire, damp,

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and fraud. Their custodians care little about them; more often than not they cannot even read the documents of which, grotesque though it may seem, they alone are the persons authorized to supply certified copies." Again he writes: "These priceless documents are now the heritage not merely of Englishmen, but of our kindred beyond the seas in America and the Colonies, and we ought to guard them properly." Mr. Phillimore's name is well known on this side of the Atlantic for his genealogical researches, and we shall think all the more of him for his persistence in exposing knavery at home.

The editor of 'Matthews's American Armoury and Blue Book' shrewdly states that the "Armoury" contains the names of those entitled to bear arms by descent in some form, and the "Blue Book" contains the names of those "descended from the early settlers in America, and of those who held high positions in the state either before or after the Revolution." Mr. Matthews also includes among his *armigeri* those whose right to arms is "by reason of their having been used for at least three generations or the space of not less than one hundred years, for which a precedent is to be found in the words of Sir William Dugdale, Norroy, King of Arms, on the occasion of a Heralds' Visitation A. D. 1668, which runs as follows:

"Therefore, it will be requisite that he do look over his own evidences for some seals of arms, for perhaps it appears in them; and if so, and they have used it from the beginning of Queen Elizabeth's reign or about that time, I shall allow thereof, for our directions are limiting us so to do, and not for a shorter prescription of usage."

Now if Dugdale ever wrote thus (and no citation is given), the reply is that he is no authority, being only one officer of Heralds' College and a writer notorious for making fictitious pedigrees. Secondly, the authorities on English and Scotch heraldry expressly deny any such rule, and insist that no arms are legal or recognized unless approved by the college. Mr. Matthews's statement makes us mistrust either his knowledge or his honesty, as his limit of one hundred years takes us back to the period when impostors were flooding this country with spurious coats-of-arms.

Now as to the Book and Armoury, we will take the cases as they run, criticising only New England names, because Savage's great book tells us about these emigrants. The first name is that of Lord Fairfax, which is incontestable. The next is a family descended from John Greene of Providence, 1637. Savage says he was from Salisbury in Wiltshire. The arms here engraved are borne by many families of Green, but where is the pedigree? Then we have a family descended from James Boutwell of Lynn, of whom Savage says merely that he was a freeman, 1639, who left two sons. No titles or pedigree recorded there. The family of John Thomas of Portsmouth, R. I., is not recorded by Savage. John Benjamin of (Watertown and) Boston, 1632, was a constable in 1632. George Thomas of Boston, 1660, is barely mentioned by Savage. Richard Dana of Cambridge, 1640, though famous in his progeny, seems never to have held any position to mark him from his fellows. Ensign Samuel Corning of Boston, 1641, is not in Savage. Thomas Macy of Nantucket has no facts added to the record of his children. John Emery of Newbury seems to be undistinguished. Desmond Fitzgerald, the eminent civil engineer, born in Nassau, N. P., is an undoubted member of the Fitzgeralds of County Mayo, Ireland, with a pedigree and a coat-of-arms.

We will stop our regular examination, page by page, with a descendant of Miles Standish, whose coat-of-arms is on p. 15, especially as Mr. Matthews refers to this family in his preface as one of his strong cards. But Miles Standish did not know his own pedigree, as the following extract from his will shows. It is printed in the *N. E. Historic and Genealogical Register*, v. 336: "I give unto my son . . . Allexander Standish all my lands as heire apparent in Ormistick," etc., etc., "given to me as right heire by lawful descent, but surreptitiously detained from me, my great-grandfather being a second or younger brother from the house of Standish of Standish." This is a pretty slender claim, with four generations omitted, and we need hardly say that the Visitations and county historians do not record this line, though the property mentioned has never lacked an owner.

A careful inspection of the names in this book fails to show more than a half-dozen families in New England belonging to the colonial gentry. The plan of the book is perfectly absurd, as no American pedigree even is given. The present generation and its alleged progenitors, some three centuries ago, are named, but not a single proof of English pedigree or affiliation is adduced. The coats-of-arms are evidently copied from 'Burke's Armory,' that ragbag of heraldry, but the local and civic honors of the subscribers are fully set forth. We regret to notice that so many belong to the mushroom crop of so-called "Sons and Daughters" of various kinds. Probably herein lies the explanation of the publication of this absurd book. In its present form it is a disgrace to our literature, and will make American heraldry a target for the ridicule of Britishers. But probably the persons who have paid for this immortality are serenely unconscious of any foreign rules and customs, and will continue to parade their fictitious coats-of-arms, and to swear by Mr. Matthews until the educated public covers them with deserved ridicule.

A WOMAN'S ADVOCATE.

The Life and Work of Susan B. Anthony; Including public addresses, her own letters and many from her contemporaries during fifty years. By Ida Husted Harper. In two volumes. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co. 1898.

This is an autobiographical biography. Though written by Mrs. Harper, it has been written under Miss Anthony's supervision, and gives us at every point her own construction of events and of her part in them, except that she has sometimes objected to the lavish praise; but this Mrs. Harper was bound should not be left out. The book is somewhat loosely put together, too many of the letters being without date even where the date counts. The writer has not cultivated Emerson's virtue of understatement, especially in speaking of meetings addressed by or doing honor to her friend. There are few obvious errors, the persistent misspelling of Abby Kelley Foster's middle name being the most conspicuous of these. It is difficult to recognize Samuel J. May as "Rev. May" and William Henry Channing as "Rev. Channing," but these are minor matters. Of much more importance is it that the subtitle of the book, "A Story of the Evolution of the Status of Woman," is not made good in these two bulky volumes, numbering jointly 1,070 pages.

What we have here, told with contagious sympathy and loyal admiration, is the story of the evolution of the status of a woman—Susan B. Anthony. It is an instructive and inspiring one. The contrast between the earlier and the later stages of her great contention is exceedingly dramatic. The gains have been immense: "the full right to speak in public; nearly the same industrial and educational opportunities; in many States, almost equal legal rights, and not one State wholly under the English common law which wholly prevailed" when Miss Anthony began her work. To these gains add the right of equal suffrage in four Western States, the school suffrage of women here and there, and certain approximations to municipal suffrage, though Miss Anthony regards such concessions as injurious to the main business—they are tubs to the whale that divert him from his normal course. But what is most significant in the story of Miss Anthony's personal career is that "there was [when she set out] as much opposition among the masses of men and women to *all* that [she] advocated as exists to-day against the demand for the ballot; yet the close of the century finds all practically granted except the ballot." It is clear that economic and social pressures have been Miss Anthony's "great allies" in some particulars.

It is a pleasant and important circumstance that, with infinite social obstruction, Miss Anthony had only kindly furtherance from those of her own family and home. This made a difference that we can hardly overstate, especially as hers was a most tender filial heart. Of the social obstruction we have many hateful illustrations. There were no limits to the scurrility of the attacks made upon her by the politicians, the pulpit, and the press. No doubt she sometimes stirred up animosity where she might have conciliated her opponents. It was not her business, again, to celebrate the felicities of domestic life. Even to the marriage of true minds she would have admitted impediments, could she have done so, when the contracting "parties of the second part" were her friends Mrs. Stanton, Lucy Stone Blackwell, and Antoinette Brown Blackwell. Indeed, Mrs. Stanton's domestic consciousness appears at less advantage here than in her own Reminiscences. So does her co-operation with Miss Anthony. Where Mrs. Stanton had only praise for Miss Anthony, Miss Anthony has some bright reflections on Mrs. Stanton's chronic backwardness in coming to her help. But there was never any serious break between these two, though they did not always pull together. With this exception, almost everybody falls out with everybody else in the course of the narrative. Mrs. Harper finds in this tendency to incoherency the penalty of pronounced individuality.

Miss Anthony was not infallible in judgment. She made some serious mistakes. Her alliance with George Francis Train was one; her long endeavor to work the Fourteenth Amendment as an instrument of equal suffrage was another. Both of these mistakes cost her many friends. Her alliance with Train saddled her with the *Revolution*, which, when Train pulled out, left her with a debt of $10,000 on her own

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back. Nothing in her life became her more than the paying of this debt. It was the work of six or seven years. She had generous help, but about half of the sum was made up of her own lecturing. Happily, at the same time, she was doing her appropriate work, from which she never turned aside. One cannot imagine a life more unified than hers by a great central purpose subordinating every other to itself.

The book abounds in situations, episodes, and incidents of a highly dramatic character, some of them amusing, some of them pathetic, if not tragical. The collapse of the *Revolution* was as tragical as anything, measured by Miss Anthony's feelings. It almost broke her heart. She will, even now, handle the bound volumes as caressingly as if she were a mother and they the garment of a lost child. One would expect to find the Bloomer episode one of the most humorous, but, in fact, it is one of the most pathetic. The correspondence it occasioned, however, has some amusing passages. Miss Anthony was one of the last to adopt the dress, one of the first to discard it. She wore it from a sense of duty and to support her friends in their course of courageous action, but the fatal shirt of Hercules was not more painful to his flesh than that to her. She was between two fires: "Garrison, Phillips, Channing, May were bitterly opposed to the short dress, and tried to dissuade the women from wearing it by every argument in their power"; on the other hand were those women who believed in the reform and had suffered martyrdom for their adhesion to it. Miss Anthony agonized about it as only one could do with her exacting conscience and her loyalty to her friends. At length the hated dress was given up, and by the lengthening of her skirts her heart was made happier than it had been for a year.

Miss Anthony's financial management was as improvident as "Müller's life of trust," and had not, like that, the adjunct of resounding prayer. Sometimes, however, her necessities were prayers distinctly overheard by generous friends: hence at one time $5,000 from Francis Jackson, and at another $25,000 from his daughter, Mrs. Eddy. But much of the anxiety of Miss Anthony's experience has consisted in getting into debt and getting out again. Every new enterprise had its deficit, to which generally she contributed the most from her own earnings—frequently the whole amount. Her energy and pluck were something marvellous. This woman, who was derided as unfeminine, could come home exhausted by her travels and their incidents of hardship and privation, and do more housework and better than many of the women who called her evil names. One entry in her journal reads: "Helped the girl wash this morning; in the afternoon ironed six shirts and started for New York at four o'clock. Was a little bit tired." In one particular she afforded some color of truth to those who said she was unsexed: she could do man's work if necessary. She could whitewash her own kitchen, and, when her father would go to Kansas for the summer, "she took entire charge of the farm, put in the crops, watched over, harvested, and sold them; assisted her mother with the housework and the family sewing, and, by way of variety, pieced a silk quilt and wove twenty yards of rag carpet in the old loom." Her capacity for work and her endurance were preternatural.

Miss Anthony's long struggle for woman suffrage is hardly more impressive than the seven years' planning, working, and speaking for the married-women's-property law finally passed in 1860. A hundred times she was cast down, but never quite destroyed. Political parties she found to be all things to all women if by any means they might save some votes by getting women to speak on their platforms. Tempted to get woman suffrage by restricting the general basis, she stubbornly refused. She had no arts of concealment and abjured all compromises and half-way measures. One must seek long to find an equal consecration and such supreme unselfishness. So far was she from enjoying publicity that she shrank from it; was timid about speaking, and did not discover her ability as a speaker till 1870, when she was fifty years old. Nor may we forget that her half-century of devotion was to a cause which meant for her an equal good for men and women.

Our Insect Friends and Foes: How to Collect, Preserve and Study Them. By Belle S. Cragin, A.M. With 255 illustrations. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xix, 377.

Everyday Butterflies: A Group of Biographies. By Samuel Hubbard Scudder. With seventy-one illustrations, plain and colored. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. vii, 391.

'Our Insect Friends and Foes' is an attempt to assist the child interested in insects, anxious to know how to get them and what to do with them when secured. The author aims to answer the questions most generally asked concerning apparatus for collecting, methods of preparation and general classification; and, in the main, she has succeeded well. Personal interest and knowledge are evident throughout the earlier pages, and the recommendations are both clear and practical. Had the book stopped there, or been continued merely to give a definition of the orders, with brief references to a few of the generally distributed forms in each, it would have been entirely commendable. Unfortunately, it goes further, and gives a classification (largely from Comstock's 'Manual,' but sometimes apparently from sources less reliable) which extends to families.

In the Lepidoptera the enumeration of families is quite complete; but in most other orders it is not, and in many, perhaps most, cases there is not the least indication of what the family characters are. Usually one, sometimes two or three, species are enumerated, and some general information is given in a few lines; but this part of the work makes it evident that the author has little personal acquaintance with her subject, and writes only what she has read, laboring to put it into a more simple and popular form. As a result, the enumeration becomes tedious to the reader, as the characterizations seem to have become perfunctory to the writer. The classification used in the Coleoptera is certainly unique, and utterly at variance with that accepted as standard by entomologists in the United States.

Concerning the illustrations it is impossible to say a good word. They are bad from every possible point of view: coarse line or stipple work, redrawn from published figures by an artist who never saw the specimens themselves, and did not hold detail except in the most general way. The picture of *Catocala ilia*, on page 126, must be one of the poorest insect illustrations ever published in this or any other country, and some of the beetle pictures are almost equally bad. In some cases the species are recognizable, but that is simply because the artist could not completely ignore his (or her) copy. The list of "Books of Reference" on page 339 could not easily be worse for the purpose intended, though the books cited are or have been very useful in themselves. Altogether the work as a whole will be of little use except as an introduction to the methods of collecting ordinarily available to the boy or girl of from eight to twelve years of age.

'Everyday Butterflies' is another of those delightful books which Mr. Scudder knows how to write so well. It is just exactly what it purports to be, and sixty-two species of the common butterflies of the Eastern United States have their stories told and their changes explained in a most interesting way. Mr. Scudder speaks always from personal knowledge, always with an intense interest in his subject, and always in the most accurate and entertaining way. Hence his latest book is good reading not only to the summer idler who is attracted by the flitting life about him, but to the more industrious student, who can rely both upon the accuracy of each statement and upon its completeness. Of the illustrations, nine are of the so-called three-color process engraving, and these, in the copy before us, leave something to be desired. The drawing is always good, the color generally so, but the register is bad, and this in many cases seriously mars the picture. The cuts are all good, and some are excellent.

A Study of Wagner. By Ernest Newman. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Richard Wagner continues to provide topics for discussion to many writers of two continents. Among recent additions to the Wagner literature in France and Germany are Henri Lichtenberger's 'Richard Wagner, Poète et Penseur,' the Comte de Chambrun's 'Wagner à Carlsruhe,' a book by Rudolph Louis on Wagner's philosophy of life, another by Hermann Pfordten on the sources of the Wagner dramas in legend and history, others still by Julius Burghold on leading motives, by "Dr. W. P.," on "Die Meistersinger," and by A. Schilling on Wagner's boyhood. In England the translation of his prose writings by Ashton Ellis has opened the floodgates, it is to be feared, for a number of new books. Not long ago Bernard Shaw wrote one in which Wagner's claim to consideration is made to lie chiefly in the socialistic doctrines he is supposed to have smuggled into his dramas, and now Ernest Newman comes forward with his 'Study of Wagner,' the gist of which is that "Wagner was a musician and nothing but a musician," and that his philosophical writings are full of the "crudest blunders of the amateur sociologist," consisting of "clumsy paralogisms" of the kind that Mr. Benjamin Kidd's 'Social Evolution' is made up of. And so the war goes on merrily, each writer appropriating that in Wagner which appeals to him, and berating those who differ from him. It depends entirely upon one's point of view, or mood, whether one finds this sort of thing funny, edifying, or tiresome.

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Mr. Newman has unbounded admiration for Wagner the musician, but has no appreciation of his poetry; the references and notes, indeed, lead one to suspect that he does not understand German, in which case his criticism of Wagner's dramas is, of course, futile. It is too late in the day to discuss this point; a man who does not feel that Wagner showed the same genius in the dramatic structure of his poems as in the dramatic structure of his music cannot be helped by argument. In his strictures on Wagner's prose writings Mr. Newman makes out a much stronger case, but the trouble here is that he takes him too seriously as a philosopher—quite as seriously as Wagner took himself. He was not a philosopher, but an artist in every fibre, and he always wrote like an artist—diversely according to his moods, and often in a strain of exaggeration. To subject such writings to the logical dissecting knife is easy, but hardly worth while. Thus, in some of his essays Wagner no doubt did indulge in "cheap and narrow-minded laudation of the German race," but then are there not a good many praiseworthy traits in that nation, and did he not, in other moods, berate his own nation with the acerbity of Schopenhauer?

There are not a few interesting and suggestive pages in Mr. Newman's book, and his footnotes display great erudition; but he has wasted much ingenuity in hair-splitting discussion of the theories and the practice of Gluck and Wagner regarding the relations of the drama and music. Here, indeed, he comes perilously near the new school of London musical criticism which thinks it is "smart" to express opinions contrary to those which everybody else holds, and which, we may add, everybody will continue to hold. Mr. Newman has doubled the utility of his book by appending a good index, and there is another feature which increases its value—an eight-page synthetic table of Wagner's life and works and synchronous events. For instance, the seven years of Wagner's career as royal conductor in Dresden, the time when "Tannhäuser" and "Lohengrin" were composed (1842-1849), coincide with the death of Cherubini, Franz's first set of songs, Mendelssohn's "Elijah," Berlioz's "Faust," the death of Mendelssohn, Meyerbeer's "Prophète," and the death of Chopin.

Die Geistigen und Socialen Strömungen des Neunzehnten Jahrhunderts. Von Theobald Ziegler, Professor an der Universität Strassburg. Berlin: Georg Bondi; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1899.

This book forms the first volume of a series entitled "Das Neunzehnte Jahrhundert in Deutschlands Entwicklung," which is intended as a popular encyclopædia of the varied manifestations of the German spirit in the public life of the last hundred years. The political history of Germany during this time is to be treated by Prof. Georg Kaufmann, the development of the natural sciences by Prof. Siegmund Günther, the technical industries by Prof. Reuleaux, the fine arts by Prof. Gurlitt, literature by Dr. Richard M. Meyer, and so on. That Prof. Ziegler should have been selected to lead off with a prelude on the moral and intellectual tendencies of the century in general seems eminently proper.

He has certainly succeeded in producing an interesting and instructive book. With a firm but gentle hand he leads us through the maze of conflicting movements, parties, and schools that have determined the path of German culture from the days of the brothers Grimm to those of William II. The Neo-Hellenism of the beginning of the century, the orgies of the Romantic philosophy of nature, the liberal and the reactionary elements of Hegelianism, the undermining quality of the literature of "Young Germany," the revolutionary agitation of the forties, the materialism and pessimism that set in with the failure of the uprising of 1848, the Bismarckian era, the present struggle between either socialistic or absolutistic state omnipotence on the one hand and the revived individualism of a Nietzsche or Hauptmann on the other—all these topics, and a great many others besides, stand out each in its own peculiar light and distinctness. And with these sketches of general movements there are interwoven animated and striking characterizations of great individuals, such as David Fr. Strauss, Schopenhauer, Bismarck, Treitschke—characterizations conspicuous for their fairness and objectivity even where, as in the case of Treitschke, the writer's instinctive antagonism to the personality portrayed by him is obvious.

Fairness may indeed be called the pervading trait of the whole book. Prof. Ziegler is a man of a remarkably wide range of intellectual sympathies. He is no less interested in the intricacies of the Hegelian system than in the issues that were at stake in the *Kulturkampf;* and his judgment of Richard Wagner is as well considered as that of the naturalistic revolt in the recent drama and painting. Philosophically, he is an eclectic, equally removed from any one of the metaphysical and moral systems which he discusses. Politically, he is a South German Liberal, but at the same time an enthusiastic worshipper of Bismarck; an opponent of militarism, but also a devout believer in universal military service. Sociologically, he is an individualist rather than a collectivist; yet his sympathy for the ideal demands of the Socialist creed, though half concealed by constitutional reservations, is none the less apparent. Æsthetically, he is an admirer of the idealism of the classic epoch of German literature; but that does not prevent him from breaking a lance for the sturdy realism of contemporary art. In short, he sees habitually both sides of a question; and even where, as in his somewhat unreasonable attacks upon what he calls Romanticism, he seems to deviate a little from the straight path of justice, this is the result not so much of partisan prejudice as of a rather wilful and inadequate terminology.

A personality of this sort is apt to lack the charm that emanates from whatever is impulsive, unhesitating, instinctive; and it must be admitted that Prof. Ziegler's disquisitions move on for the most part somewhat sluggishly. There is absent in them the irresistible trend of a truly inspired mind. One chapter follows the other with becoming order and neatness, but they do not grow out of each other—they are simply placed side by side; there is nothing inevitable in them, no unifying idea, no fundamental and undoubting faith. But it would be foolish to expect from a writer what the peculiarity of his temper forbids him to give, and there is certainly enough in this book to be grateful for. Though written for Germans, it seems particularly well adapted to the needs of foreigners who wish to know how the leading thoughts and the leading men of German national life in the nineteenth century are reflected in the mind of a representative German of to-day. The influence of a book like this, especially upon the growing generation, cannot help being of the best. Its mild yet manly spirit, its fearless independence, its breadth of sympathy, its calm and unaggressive patriotism are like oil upon the turbulent waters of party passion and hatred. If the majority of German students and university men were imbued with Prof. Ziegler's spirit, the days of Anti-Semitism, of leze-majesty prosecutions, and of Socialist fanaticism would soon be numbered, and the golden words with which he takes leave of his readers would be fulfilled:

"If our young men were to combine the martial vigor and the bold realism of to-day with the enlightened tolerance of their forefathers, then the twentieth century would be, not necessarily more peaceful than the nineteenth has been, but certainly more just and more evenly balanced. I am enough of an optimist to hope for this, for tolerance is a native element of the German mind. The word of Hegel, that history is progress towards freedom, is not yet obsolete. But free are only those who are both brave and humane."

The interest of the volume is heightened by contemporary portraits of Goethe, Schleiermacher, W. von Humboldt, Hegel, Heine, Strauss, Lassalle, Nietzsche, and others, although the value of these portraits is very uneven.

The United States of Europe on the Eve of the Parliament of Peace. By W. T. Stead. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1899.

Mr. Stead's support is not always welcome to those who have the permanent success of a cause at heart. It is not many years since he proposed to extinguish sexual immorality in London by expatiating in public on its shocking particulars, with such results as might have been expected. Nor has the city of Chicago repented because of Mr. Stead's proclamation of its depravity. In fact, sensational appeals seldom produce enduring reforms, and Mr. Stead's fame is principally due to his sensational writing. But it is only just to say that the letters here collected are for the most part moderate in expression, and their substance is undeniably interesting. The author has had the opportunity of conversing with many of those to whom the control of the political relations of the European States has been committed, and it is certainly no mean privilege to be admitted to an interview with the Czar. Mr. Stead's account of the feelings of that prince is extremely encouraging to all lovers of peace.

Alexander III., the father of the present Czar, made the campaign in Bulgaria, and the horrors that he then witnessed led him to resolve that his subjects should enjoy peace during his life. He was devoted to his family, and constantly endeavored to make his children detest war. He did not dwell on its pomp and glory, but on the frightful suffering that it caused, and, after relating the terrible events that he had witnessed, he would add, with great earnestness, "May God keep you from ever seeing war, or from ever drawing a sword." Nicholas II. appears to have been thoroughly convinced by his father's teaching, and Mr. Stead assures us

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that he is passionately devoted to peace. He adds that in no point in his policy is there any antagonism whatever between his aims and the interests of the British Empire. That may be true, and yet the policy of the Czar may not be that of the rulers of Russia. But when we consider that no Power has anything to gain by attacking this vast empire, and that Russia has more to gain by peaceful internal development than by warfare, it is reasonable to conclude that the future of the common people of Europe is not without hope.

It could hardly be expected that Mr. Stead should neglect to refer to the melancholy contrast between the recent appeal of the Czar for relief from the burden of arms, and the "criminal aggression" in which President McKinley declares the American republic is now engaged. He is justified in emphasizing this contrast; but we may still hope that the sober second thought of our people will affect the policy of our rulers. On the other hand, it is to be considered that the relations of the States of Europe are in many ways more civilized than they were. Not the least effective part of Mr. Stead's letters is that which details the gradual yielding of military barriers to the pressure of modern trade and travel. The custom-houses still flourish, but they are less of a nuisance than formerly, and those who remember the days when a passport was indispensable to every traveller in Europe, can appreciate the progress that a few years have brought about.

Among the causes contributing to the unity of Europe, Mr. Stead reckons as most important the telegraphic agencies, the "Riverain" commissions, and the International Railway Bureau. The first of these causes makes the citizens of every State feel an interest in the affairs, even the petty affairs, of all the rest, and Mr. Stead observes:

"Let no one overlook the value of gossip in the formation of the ties which bind men together. Take away family gossip, and the family would in most cases become a mere skeleton, without flesh, blood, or nervous system. It is by the kindly gossip of the fireside, in which every one talks about everybody else, that the sense of family union is created and preserved. The chatterers of the telegraph, who, in every capital, carefully extract the kernel of grain from the bushel of chaff, and telegraph all round the Continent such items of intelligence as may be of general interest, contribute probably the most constantly potent influence that can be discovered in the growth of that common sentiment which is the precursor of common action in support of the commonwealth."

There is much truth in this, but there would be more if the newspaper gossip were kindlier and cleaner, and if the extraction of the kernel of grain from the bushel of chaff were performed with more discrimination. But we need not qualify our appreciation of the work which has been accomplished by the Danube Regulation Commission, or the International Railway Bureau, or the Postal Union. It is hard for despotic rulers to contend against these powerful influences. Mr. Stead's survey of Europe is comprehensive, although taken during a hurried three-months' tour. His report of the talk of the journalists and diplomats at the different capitals serves well enough for current history, and he presents his readers with a great number of photographs of European notables. He intimates that this volume may be the first of a series of annuals intended to "provide the general reader with a more or less comprehensive survey of the movements of the twelvemonth, written from a special standpoint after personal converse with the sovereigns and statesmen, the diplomatists and journalists of Europe." Doubtless such a series would be popular; but it would be more valuable if the future numbers were provided with indexes. The volume before us has none, and the table of contents is of little use.

The Cuchullin Saga in Irish Literature. Being a Collection of Stories relating to the Hero Cuchullin. Translated from the Irish by various scholars. Compiled and edited with Introduction and Notes by Eleanor Hull. London: David Nutt. 1898.

The Irish Saga of Cuchullin, as here put forward, is a mosaic set together of parts derived from manuscript sources as wide apart chronologically as the end of the eleventh and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries. These sources, furthermore, have not been rigidly or even closely adhered to. Some of the stories are adaptations of various originals, with interpolations and omissions; to one of them, "How Conochar gained the Kingship over Ulster," is prefixed the statement that it "does not correspond to any definite Irish text." The immediate source of the author's material is even more catholic; several stories are retranslations from German, several others from French; no one is by the author of the book herself, who seems to have let her Irish originals severely alone. All this is by no means necessarily an impeachment, since it is readily to be gained from the long sub-title, which clearly enough indicates the character of the work. In her introduction to the great Irish epic, the 'Táin bó Cuailgne,' the compiler states that "it is intended primarily for English readers, not for Irish scholars," a characterization equally applicable to the whole book, which it admirably summarizes.

We have, then, an attempt, and the first one, to put before the general English reader in consecutive form the stories that make up what may well be called the "Saga" of Cuchullin, the "Hound of Culann." Of the two great legendary cycles of Ireland, those of Cuchullin and of Finn mac Cumaill, the father of Ossian (variously called the Finn and the Ossian Saga), the former is the more ancient, both in manner and matter of content and in manuscript transmission. Its place of action is Ulster and Connaught, and its time (in accordance with Irish chronology) a few decades before and after the beginning of the Christian era. According to excellent authority, as early as the seventh century the legends of Cuchullin had begun to grow together into stories of greater or less length and were written down. The earliest versions actually at hand are in the two great manuscripts which together contain the most important part of the cycle, the *Leabhar na hUidre*, the "Book of the Dun Cow," from the end of the eleventh century, and the *Book of Leinster*, from near the middle of the twelfth. The language of both these sources in its characteristic features is, however, that of the eighth and ninth centuries. Both manuscripts have unfortunately come down to us in a fragmentary condition.

The texts of the two versions as a whole differ materially. The *Leabhar na hUidre* contains a saga in the making, with gaps in the continuity of the story, unmotived episodes, and varying versions awkwardly joined together. The *Book of Leinster*, fifty years younger, shows, on the other hand, the fundamental unity of narration that we are accustomed to associate with the name of "saga"; the story proceeds without unnecessary deviation or repetition. The author, in her introduction, appears to lose sight of the fact that the stories, so far as they are contained in the *Book of Leinster*, have actually come down to us in a connected form when she throws out the conjecture that, "although the cycle exists, and apparently always has existed, in a number of isolated tales, to the minds of the bards themselves it must have presented itself as a connected whole." As for the rest, she sees in these stories of Cuchullin, as we have them from all sources, a completeness and homogeneity that does not exist. The saga is only apparently complete, since a considerable number of the tales which originally made up its individual episodes have been lost, and internal criticism, which need not go too deep, readily enough yields up the fact of incongruity. Neither of these conditions may appear in the saga as the author has here set it together, but, as has been before remarked, that is another matter.

The Cuchillin Saga shows Irish literature (in goodly portion a literature of story-telling) at its best. The tales of this cycle, and not those of the better known Finn cycle, are typical, the author points out, of the literary genius of ancient Ireland. Even the retranslations of this book—as Sir Walter Scott once called their kind, "the shadow of a shade"—it must be said are good reading. At their best, the stories have a singularly attractive style of their own, a style "terse, grave, and balanced," a definiteness of purpose, and an undoubted dignity that shines even through their borrowed setting. In many of them are found the lively and humorous incidents and the witty conversations that are to be expected of Irishmen of all time as the exercise of a birthright. The author furthermore points out the tenderness of the love-tales, which she thinks have a purity and a charm hardly to be found either in the Northern saga or the Southern romance.

The *pièce de résistance* of the present book is undoubtedly the version of the 'Táin bó Cuailgne' contributed to the work by Standish Hayes O'Grady. In Ireland itself this narrative of the raid which the men of Connaught under Ailell and Meave, in conjunction with the three other provinces, undertake into Ulster to secure the celebrated Brown Bull belonging to Daire mac Fiachna of Cuailgne, is, and apparently always has been, considered its most famous story. The present version has been made from a manuscript of this century, although it coincides in the main outline of events with the *Book of Leinster*. Perhaps unfortunately, it does not purport to be more than an analysis, for here was an excellent opportunity for an *editio princeps* of the epic in English, nor, it is pointed out, is it a critical translation, even as far as it goes. The author takes pains to tell us, however, that it "is in parts a sufficiently full and close reproduction of the original to answer all the purposes of the non-critical reader"—a dictum against which it would be utterly vain to appeal. This, like the other parts of the book, is again good reading, and furnishes, no doubt, an excellent conspectus of the story, from the gathering of the forces at Cuil silinne, when they set out for Ulster, to the last tremendous charge of the re-

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doubtable Brown Bull, when from the summit of sliabh Bregh he once more sees the hills of Cuailgne and rushes on to his tragic death.

The popular presentment from their literary side alone of the tales which make up the Saga of Cuchullin is an element of undoubted significance and value in the rediscovery and rehabilitation of Irish literature. That these old stories have not only interest, but beauties of their own as literature, is fully apparent from the tales in the present book, like, for instance, "The Wooing of Emir," by Kuno Meyer, which are really translations and not versions of their originals. The Sagas of Ireland, the author says, must be placed in their natural place beside the sagas of the North and the epics of mediæval Europe, and her book will no doubt play its part to bring about this result. It is to be hoped, however, that, now that we have been given an idea of what the stories of this cycle are like, somebody may give us a knowledge of what they really are.

Irish literature, furthermore, apart from mere literary interest, has a value, underestimated except by the few, as a link in the chain of the literary development of Europe which it is impossible longer to disregard. The introduction calls attention to the pertinent question of the relation of the literature of Ireland to that of the rest of Europe, and to the undoubted element of action and reaction involved. This is one of the most interesting phases of the study of Irish, and one of the most valuable. No one, for instance, to touch but a single side of the matter, can read these stories without noticing not only their generic, but their specific likeness to the saga literature of Iceland; and the large problem of Irish influence not alone upon the prose of the North, but upon its poetry, upon the Sagas and the Edda, as well, is one of the most interesting in modern criticism. To the popular recognition of all these things the present book should contribute.

The Cuchullin Saga is volume viii. of the Grimm Library. Like its predecessors, it is admirably printed. There is a map at the beginning to illustrate the Saga, and at the end are notes, appendices, and an index.

An Introduction to the Theory of Analytic Functions. By J. Harkness and F. Morley. Macmillan. 1898. 8vo, pp. 336.

As a book to put into the hands of those students whose turn of mind enables them profitably to relish a spoonful or two of the odorous bouillabaisse that has been stewing on the mathematical range during all the generation last past, but who do not intend to become professional mathematicians, no other has yet appeared, or is likely for a good while to appear, we believe, half as good as this; unquestionably not, if we limit the comparison to works on the theory of functions, which has served as *pièce de résistance* during that period and longer. This is distinguished from other available elementary treatises by being in the main Weierstrassian—which means (as well as we know how to describe it in general terms) that it flies straight at the algebraic throats of fundamental problems, disdaining geometrical circumventions, and with a degree of logical precision which (whether it is of the essence of the method or only a natural concomitant of it) is certainly much superior to the previous habit of modern, or even of ancient, mathematics. This method offers special advantages over those of Cauchy and Riemann when the aim of the study is mental training, as it is with those students for whom this book is most adapted.

Such a book must aid in that disintegration of the traditional English idea of mathematics which has been going on of late years. For some reason the English have followed Euclid, Apollonius, and Archimedes more closely than have the Continental mathematicians. They have shared the Greek scrupulosity of logic, and, like the Greeks, seem to look upon all mathematicians with the eyes of geometers. They, more than others, for example, have been disposed to look upon a quarter-turn as an *interpretation* of algebraic imaginaries. It better accords with the Weierstrassian spirit, as well as that of the Lagrangian analysts, to regard the algebraic expression as an elucidation of the Euclidean geometry of the plane, as quaternions is of 4-dimensional geometry.

But Professors Harkness and Morley are by no means entirely given over to Weierstrass. The methods by which the theory of functions was originally rendered comprehensible are sufficiently illustrated in the book to make the student appreciate the large measures of beauty, strength, and truth that are in them. The authors are rather on their pilgrimage to Weierstrass, and perhaps already regret that they did not treat some problems in their recent larger treatise more after his example. They are not yet altogether incapable of lapsing into obsolescent modes of thought. Thus, they adhere to that opinion which calls the point at infinity in the plane of imaginary quantity an "artificial point." Wherever this phrase originated, it involves a logical slip with both feet. For first, it confuses a pure mathematical hypothesis with a matter of fact, and, second, it assumes that we are better acquainted with the infinitely distant parts of space than we are. For no matter what the shape of real space *is*, which is a question of physics, not of pure mathematics, it is undeniable that we may *suppose* a space which shall have but a single point at infinity. In such a space, a circular filament, or fibre, could be stretched into an unlimited and infinite straight line (as by a continuous bilinear transformation), although in the space of projective geometry, where there is a plane (or conic) at infinity, the filament could be continuously deformed only into two straight fibres (and that only by welding two particles of it together), which, however, may coincide. We can never ascertain how the infinitely distant parts of our objectively valid space are really shaped, except by inference from the parts near us; and since the hypothetical plane of the theory of functions and that of Euclidean projective geometry are precisely alike except at infinity, it would seem to follow that we never can decide that the former is not the shape of a real plane, unless the proper motions of the stars should prove that space is non-Euclidean, in which case the plane of the theory of functions would be everywhere unlike a real plane. It may be objected, however, that we cannot, from any observation of space about us, infer that the part at infinity has an essential singularity; and that which could never be inferred cannot be true. Whether or not there is a sound answer to this, it is hard to say. But this is not at all the idea embodied in the term "artificial point."

The book has most of the distinguished merits of its authors' larger work. It also shares the chief fault of that volume, that of being here and there not so perspicuous as it might easily have been made; a greater inconvenience in the more elementary treatise. We do not quite comprehend why the book need have been so very small, only 326 pages of large and open print, exclusive of the glossarial index. True, it had to be short enough for a college course; but a little amplification in some places might have abbreviated the time required to read it. An initial short chapter discusses the number-system. If that was worth doing at all (as we certainly think it was), it was worth carrying to logical perfection; for that is the sole *raison d'être* of such a chapter. But the reasoning is so abridged that it can hardly be said that this has been done. The number system is one thing, and the system of discrete multitude is an entirely different thing. The former is an affair of pure mathematics, the latter is rather a question of logic, but of the logic of mathematics; and the work would have gained in value, especially for the class of students for whom it is adapted, if the chapter on the number system (expanded by a few pages) had been followed by another developing the distinctions of enumerable, denumeral, and the grades of higher discrete multitude, together with the true conception of continuity.

In Afric's Forest and Jungle; or Six Years among the Yorubans. By the Rev. R. H. Stone. F. H. Revell Co. Illustrated. Pp. 282, 8vo.

A missionary's life among the Yorubans of the Slave Coast thirty years ago was full of hardship and peril, but not because of their savagery or opposition to Christianity, for they were among the most intelligent, peaceable, and industrious of the negroes of West Africa. Mr. Stone enumerates fifteen trades carried on by the men, while the "women are even more industrious," weaving, dyeing, making soap, oils, and earthenware, and "spinning by the light of their little bowl-lamps until late at night and before day in the morning." The comparative wealth which they thus accumulated, however, made them a constant prey to their savage neighbors, and the Dahomians at this time made annual raids into their country. The town in which he was first stationed, a place of a hundred thousand inhabitants, after a year's siege was taken and destroyed so utterly that its site "is a feeding-ground for wild elephants." He escaped to Abeokuta, which, during the two years of his residence, was threatened with the same fate. One of the principal defences of this city was an almost impenetrable forest, which the Dahomians entered in single file at many places and cut their way through step by step. During the month which it took them to reach the open, "they were not allowed to make any noise which would distinguish them from the wild denizens of an African forest. If any one forgot himself and spoke in an audible voice, he was instantly slain. Even orders were given in grunts or barks like those of monkeys." A suburb was captured, and of the ten thousand inhabitants, "excepting a few hundred spared to be offered in sacrifice, everybody but one man perished." Satisfied with this

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success, the enemy withdrew, to return, however, the next year, when their attack was repulsed.

Mr. Stone narrates with an attractive simplicity some of his own perilous experiences in these wars, and also describes the homes, customs, and superstitions of the people. There are interesting sketches of two strong characters among the natives, Bishop Crowther of the English church and Kumee, chief of Ejahyay. Mr. Stone tells little of his purely missionary work, or of the progress which Christianity has made since his departure. Although the Dahomian raids have ceased, it is to be feared that the gin traffic has in a measure taken their place as a destructive and demoralizing influence with the Yorubans. The efforts for its practical abolition are now being strenuously renewed, with some hopes of success. With its cessation, and the protection to life and property which a Christian government assures, together with the building of the projected railway from Lagos to the Niger, this region may become the garden of Africa.

The Law's Lumber Room. By Francis Watt. Second Series. New York: John Lane. 1898.

The success achieved by Mr. Watt in his first venture in antiquarian research, which was noticed in these columns on its appearance, has been such as to encourage him to repeat the experiment. The book now before us is written well. The style, indeed, is sometimes a little flippant, and subjects that are intrinsically solemn are treated jestingly. So far as levity in discussing grave topics is concerned, however, Mr. Watt sins in very good company; and events that would excite compassion if close at hand, arouse little emotion when all the participants have long since been absorbed by the earth from which they sprang. Hence, the grisly details of the hangings and floggings of the last century do not disgust us, or at least do not horrify us like present barbarities. We take a certain pleasure in thinking how much milder our manners are than those of our fathers; although, it must be confessed, Mr. Watt chronicles nothing more atrocious than the recent lynchings in our Southern States. And it is a relief to have him report that the execution of the criminal law of England was more lenient than has been supposed. His judgment is that only desperate characters were put to death. From a list made by the Newgate Ordinary, in the years following 1700, it appears that in one year, of forty-nine criminals condemned to death, only thirteen were executed, and in another year, the number of executions was but five. Still, the chapters on "Tyburn Tree" and the "Pillory and Cart's Tail" are gruesome reading, and more desirable entertainment is to be found in the account of "Some Disused Roads to Matrimony," and "The Border Law."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldock, Lieut.-Col. T. S. Cromwell as a Soldier. London: Kegan Paul; New York; Scribners. $6.
Baring-Gould, S. Pabo, the Priest. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 50c.
Bennett, E. A. A Man from the North. John Lane. $1.25.
Bigelow, Capt. John, jr. Reminiscences of the Santiago Campaign. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Blaisdell, Etta A. and Mary F. Child Life in Tale and Fable. Macmillan. 35c.
Britten, F. J. Old Clocks and Watches and their Makers. London: B. T. Botsford; New York: Scribners. $5.00.
Brontë, Anne. Agnes Grey. London: Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.00.
Christie, W. W. *Chimney Design and Theory*; A Book for Engineers and Architects. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.00.
Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Sixth Series. Vol. X. Boston.
Davis, O. K. Our Conquests in the Pacific. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Dowson, E. and Moore, A. Adrian Rome: A Contemporary Portrait. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Eaton, D. B. The Government of Municipalities. Macmillan. $4.00.
Eliot, George, Silas Marner. Macmillan. 25c.
Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. The Custom of the Country: Tales of New Japan. Macmillan. $1.50.
Gilbert, H. M. Of Necessity. John Lane. $1.25.
Harland, Marion. When Grandmamma Was New. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.
Hogarth, D. Authority and Archæology, Sacred and Profane. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.00.
Krausse, A. Russia in Asia: 1558-1899. Henry Holt & Co.
Leach, A. F. A History of Winchester College. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Living Age. Seventh Series. Vol. III. Boston: Living Age Co.
Mather, A. E. In the Maelstrom. F. Tennyson Neely.
McChesney, Dora G. Rupert by the Grace of God. Macmillan.
Merton, H. W. Descriptive Mentality from the Head, Face and Hand. Philadelphia: David McKay. $1.50.
Morison, W. Andrew Melville. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 75c.
Morris, Clara. A Silent Singer. Brentano's. $1.25.
Perry, Prof. A. L. Williamstown and Williams College. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Reminiscences of the King of Rumania. Harper & Bros. $3.00.
Rossetti, D. G. Ballads. (Siddal Edition). London: Ellis & Elvey.
Royal Academy Pictures, 1899. Cassell & Co. $3.
Sawyer, Edith A. Mary Cameron: A Romance of Fisherman's Island. Boston: Benj. A. Sanborn & Co. $1.00.
Spingarn, J. E. History of Literary Criticism in the Renaissance. Macmillan. $1.50.
Springer, Mary E. Dorothy Quincy. F. Tennyson Neely.
Tiernan, C. B. The Tiernan Family in Maryland. Baltimore: Gallery & McCann. $1.00.
Toutée, Commandant. Du Dahomé au Sahara. La Nature et l'Homme. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Tschudi, Clara. Eugénie, Empress of the French. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan.
Warner, C. D. That Fortune. Harpers.
Watson, H. B. M. The Heart of Miranda, and Other Stories. John Lane. $1.25.
Wilcox, Marrion. Vengeance of the Female. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Wilkinson, Florence. The Lady of the Flag-Flowers. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Williams, Dr. T. W. In Quest of Life. F. T. Neely.

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